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EDITORIAL COMMENT

At the annual meeting of the Editorial Board, which was held during the meeting of the American Historical Association at Chattanooga, Dr. Roscoe R. Hill was elected to the Board in place of Professor Arthur Preston Whitaker, whose term of service expired in 1935. Professor J. Fred Rippy, who has been called to fill the chair of Hispanic American History at Chicago University, resigned as Assistant Managing Editor. Dr. John Tate Lanning, of Duke University, was elected to take Professor Rippy's place as Associate Managing Editor. This latter post, like the post of Managing Editor, is permanent or until resignation. Other posts are for six years. The Managing Editor expresses his own appreciation and that of the entire Board for the value of the services both of Professor Whitaker and of Professor Rippy. The Board is to be congratulated on the election of Dr. Hill, whose services to students of Hispanic American History have not been few—it will be remembered that the reopening of the Spanish archives to students of the United States was brought about largely by him—and of Dr. Lanning, one of the younger members of the Hispanic American Group, whose professional achievements have already signalized him.

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INTEREST IN A NICARAGUA CANAL, 1903-1931

When Roosevelt "took" Panama in 1903 and began "to make the dirt fly" he temporarily quieted the century-long debate over the respective merits of the proposed interoceanic canal routes.¹ Even the most ardent proponents of a Nicaragua waterway, from whom almost certain success had been snatched at the eleventh hour, appear to have lost hope. But the turbulent events in Nicaragua which immediately preceded and followed the collapse of Zelaya's régime in 1910 served to arouse an uneasiness in the United States which indicated that the Nicaragua route was still a matter of concern. There was always the disquieting possibility that some European or Asiatic power might undertake to construct a rival waterway through Nicaragua. Such an enterprise would not only challenge the Monroe Doctrine and provoke international complications of a serious nature, but, if completed, would provide ruinous competition for the Panama canal.²

Fears of foreign intermeddling or intervention were in no wise quieted when rumors began to circulate throughout the United States that in 1908 Zelaya had attempted to interest Japan in a Nicaragua canal, and that in 1910 his successor had taken steps to cede to Great Britain Great Corn island, which commands the eastern terminus of the Nicaragua route.³ This feeling of uncertainty was increased by the financial prostration which followed the abdication of Zelaya; and one needed no great perspicacity to conclude that the Nicaraguan government would find it difficult to resist a tempting offer from some

¹ For a complete list of the nineteen proposed routes see *House Document*, 72 Cong. 1 sess., no. 139, p. 5 (Report of Interoceanic Canal Board).

² It was feared that a foreign company or power might even attempt to secure the route for the sole purpose of later extorting a high price from the United States.

³ George T. Weitzel, "American Policy in Nicaragua", in *Sen. Doc.*, 64 Cong., 1 sess., no. 334, pp. 9-10.

foreign power for what is perhaps its greatest natural asset.⁴ In the light of this situation the observations of George T. Weitzel, United States Minister to Nicaragua from 1911 to 1913, are of more than passing significance:

In brief, it may be said that the canal question is the principal disturbing issue in Nicaraguan affairs, whether international, interstate, or internal; and this is none the less true, even though the Panama route has long since been chosen as the world's highway of commerce. It still offers to the cupidity of the professional revolutionist a prize as valuable as the possession of the customhouses and affords as much as ever an opportunity for intrigues among the Central American republics and a basis for negotiation with foreign countries, if not a provocation for their interference in the affairs of Nicaragua.⁵

The Chamorro-Weitzel treaty of 1913 was born of this troubled situation. By its terms the United States was to secure an option on the canal route, together with the privilege of establishing certain naval bases; and Nicaragua in return was to receive a sorely-needed \$3,000,000.⁶ The negotiators felt that the cash payment would hasten the end of financial chaos (which, incidentally, was jeopardizing the claims of the New York bankers), and that the option would further stabilize conditions in Nicaragua through the elimination of the greatest incentive to European intrigue. In addition, the United States would be able to add a further link to the defenses of the Panama canal⁷ and at the same time forestall possible diplomatic friction and commercial competition by serving notice on the other powers that the Nicaragua waterway was no longer a subject in which they could properly interest themselves. This treaty was finally submitted to the United States Senate but at such a late hour in Taft's admin-

⁴ This possibility was foreshadowed by the early negotiations between Nicaragua and the New York bankers. *The United States and Nicaragua: A Survey of the Relations from 1909 to 1932* (Washington, D. C., 1932), p. 29.

⁵ Weitzel, *loc. cit.*, pp. 8-9.

⁶ *Papers Relating to the Foreign Affairs of the United States, 1913*, p. 1021. (Hereafter cited as *U. S. For. Rel.*) Weitzel *loc. cit.*, pp. 10, 33. See *Cong. Record*, 70 Cong., 1 sess., p. 7617 for statement of Colonel C. D. Ham.

⁷ A number of observers thought that the naval base features of the treaty were more important than the canal option.

istration that it had to be carried over as a legacy for his successor.⁸

An anomalous situation resulted. President Wilson and Secretary Bryan, despite their strictures upon the "dollar diplomacy" of the Taft-Knox régime, recognized what appeared to be great advantages to the United States in the Chamorro-Weitzel treaty; and, discarding their theories, not only supported the agreement but also endeavored to strengthen it by extending the principles of the Platt amendment to Nicaragua.⁹ This, remarked the *New York Times*, made the "dollar diplomacy" of the republicans "more nearly resemble ten-cent diplomacy".¹⁰ The democratic majority on the senate foreign relations committee were, however, more mindful of consistency, and early in August, 1913, they voted unfavorably on the treaty, making it clear that they would reconsider their action only after the protectorate feature had been eliminated.¹¹ As a result of this decision, which helped allay the great amount of distrust that had been aroused in Hispanic America by the proposed extension of the Platt amendment southward,¹² Bryan abandoned the treaty and turned his attention to more pressing business.¹³

Almost a year later, in June, 1914, interest in a canal treaty was revived when the senate committee on foreign relations held a number of hearings on that subject. General Emiliano Chamorro, Nicaraguan minister to the United States, was among those who testified, and he was reported as having declared that Germany was prepared to pay more

⁸ *New York Times*, February 27, 1913; *Cong. Record*, 63 Cong., 2 sess., p. 11617.

⁹ Wilson and Bryan, June 19, 1913, in R. S. Baker, *Woodrow Wilson: Life and Letters* (Garden City, N. Y.), IV. 436.

¹⁰ *New York Times*, July 21, 1913. For further comment on the position of Bryan, the former anti-imperialist, see *ibid.*, July 22, 24, 30, August 3, 1913; June 17, 18, 1914. See also *New York Sun*, February 20, 1916.

¹¹ *New York Times*, July 30, August 3, 1913; Bryan to Wilson, July 31, 1913, in Baker, *op. cit.*, IV. 437.

¹² Costa Rica and Salvador were particularly concerned over the protectorate precedent, and the presidents of these two republics expressed themselves strongly against it. *New York Times*, July 21, 23, 24, 27, 1913.

¹³ *Ibid.*, August 5, 7, 1913.

than the \$3,000,000 then being offered by the United States for the canal route monopoly.¹⁴ Whatever may have been the effect of such testimony, on August 5, 1914, the Bryan-Chamorro treaty was signed at Washington.¹⁵ Specifically, the United States was granted in perpetuity an option on the Nicaragua canal route; a ninety-nine year lease of the Great and Little Corn islands; and the privilege for a like period of establishing a naval base on the Gulf of Fonseca, one of the finest and most strategically located harbors on the Pacific coast of Hispanic America.¹⁶ In return for these concessions the bankrupt Nicaraguan government was to receive \$3,000,000. The signing of the Bryan-Chamorro treaty came almost simultaneously with the outbreak of war in Europe, and additional weight was given to the argument that the United States should secure the Nicaragua route for itself and prevent any European power from obtaining it.¹⁷ Nevertheless, the opposition was able to master enough strength in committee to secure postponement for the session.¹⁸

Almost a year and a half was to elapse before the senate took final action on the treaty. Secretary Bryan had little doubt that the necessary two-thirds vote was obtainable, but the pressure of domestic legislation and the unusual conditions created by the world war made postponement necessary.¹⁹ Not only did the European conflict divert public interest, but also the fortunes of the Nicaragua treaty were tied up with those of the Colombia indemnity treaty, which ex-President

¹⁴ *Ibid.*, June 24, 1914. It was rumored that Germany was prepared to pay \$9,000,000. *Christian Science Monitor*, February 17, 1916.

¹⁵ For text see *U. S. For. Rel.*, 1916, pp. 849-852. In general, the Bryan-Chamorro treaty retained the basic features of the Chamorro-Weitzel treaty in somewhat strengthened form.

¹⁶ The lease and grants were renewable for a further period of ninety-nine years. Details of canal construction could be arranged later.

¹⁷ *New York Times*, September 2, 1914; *Cong. Record*, 70 Cong., 1 sess., p. 6993. Note the effect of the war on accelerating the purchase of the Danish West Indies. See C. C. Tansill, *The Purchase of the Danish West Indies* (Baltimore, 1932), p. 467, *et seq.*

¹⁸ *New York Times*, October 13, 1914. Wilson's personal letter urging the committee to report favorably fell on barren ground. *Ibid.*, October 15, 1914.

¹⁹ Bryan to Chamorro, March 4, 1915, *U. S. For. Rel.*, 1915, pp. 1112-1113.

Roosevelt was vehemently opposing.²⁰ Late in November, 1915, however, flagging interest was to some extent aroused by the report that a group of Canadian capitalists were planning to construct an Atlantic to Pacific railroad across Nicaragua; and the fear was expressed that such an enterprise, if completed, would divert trade from the Panama Canal and jeopardize the control of the Nicaragua route by the United States.²¹ Finally, early in February, 1916, the treaty was reported favorably, and was then debated in executive session of the senate, where it was reported that the danger of a higher bid by Germany was emphasized.²² After the addition of two amendments, one having to do with the disposition of the \$3,000,000 and the other conveying assurances to Costa Rica, Salvador, and Honduras that their rights would be respected, the senate consented to ratification by a vote of 55-19.²³ Curiously enough, the democratic majority received strong support from the conservative republicans, who took the position that the Bryan-Chamorro treaty was but a logical continuation of "dollar diplomacy".²⁴ Early in April, 1916, the Nicaragua Senate approved the treaty by a unanimous vote, and the house concurred 29 to 8.²⁵

The new treaty was not out of harmony with the traditional policy of the United States,²⁶ and the press of the country reacted favorably, if at all, to the transaction.²⁷ An occasional voice complained that \$3,000,000 was a miserly sum to pay the impecunious Nicaraguan government for so many and such

²⁰ See *New York Times*, January 27, 1916.

²¹ *Ibid.*, November 21, 23, 24, 1915.

²² *Ibid.*, February 15, 1916.

²³ *Cong. Record*, 64 Cong., 1 sess., p. 2770.

²⁴ *New York Times*, February 19, 1916. Bryan was no longer secretary.

²⁵ *U. S. For. Rel.*, 1916, p. 832. No amendments were proposed by Nicaragua. One of the liberal senators did not vote but filed a protest.

²⁶ Six different treaties on the subject of a canal had been negotiated between the two countries during the nineteenth century. *U. S. and Nicaragua, 1909-1933*, p. 29.

²⁷ Of thirteen representative newspapers that were examined, only five commented on the treaty at the time of its ratification. Of these, only the *New York Evening Post* (February 19, 1916) was lukewarm in its praise. The *New York Sun* (February 20, 1916) spoke of the senate's having done a "good day's work"; and the *Boston Evening Transcript* (February 19, 1916) urged the additional

valuable concessions;²⁸ and undoubtedly more would have been heard on this point had it been foreseen that nearly one-half of the \$3,000,000 was never to leave the United States but was to go directly to the coffers of two powerful New York banking houses.²⁹ It was in the senate, however, that a minority, led by Senator Borah, denounced the treaty. The commanding officer of the United States marines in Nicaragua had recently reported that the opposition (liberal) party "constitute three-fourths of the country"; that "the elections of the House of Congress were mostly fraudulent"; and that "the present government is not in power by the will of the people. . . ."³⁰ With additional evidence of a similar nature before him, Borah upbraided the state department for having violated "the most primary precepts of international decency" by negotiating a treaty with a puppet government supported by the bayonets of the marines, and as a consequence with having made an agreement "based upon deception, misrepresentation, fraud and corruption. . . ."³¹ Even Senator Elihu Root, conceding that the Nicaraguan government did "not represent more than a quarter of the people of the country" and that it was "really maintained in office by the presence of the United States marines", concluded that on legal grounds there were grave doubts as to the propriety of taking substantial concessions from a government whose capacity to act as a free agent might later be seriously challenged.³²

acquisition of Magdalena Bay and the Galapagos Islands. See also *New York Times*, November 24, 1915; *Literary Digest*, March 4, 1916, p. 552.

²⁸ *New York Nation*, July 31, 1913, p. 93. The *New York Sun* (February 20, 1916) remarked that the naval bases alone were worth the money. The *Boston Post* (February 21, 1916) described the transaction as a "great bargain".

²⁹ After the British claims had been taken care of it was estimated that Nicaragua received only 30 per cent of the \$3,000,000. *U. S. For. Rels.*, 1917, pp. 1149-1150; *U. S. and Nicaragua, 1909-1932*, p. 35; *Hearings before the Subcommittee of the Committee on Foreign Relations; United States Senate*; 69 Cong., 2 sess., pursuant to S. Con. Res. 15, p. 25.

³⁰ See Root to Borah, January 7, 1915, cited in *Cong. Record*, 69 Cong., 2 sess., p. 1557.

³¹ *Cong. Record*, 63 Cong., 2 sess., pp. 11614, 11617; see also *ibid.*, 69 Cong., 2 sess., 1557; *ibid.*, 70 Cong., 1 sess., p. 2358.

³² Root feared that when the marines were withdrawn the treaty might be

There was some opposition in Nicaragua to the treaty, led chiefly by liberal politicians (the "outs") who viewed the \$3,000,000 with jealous eyes and who begrudged the administration whatever credit attached to having consummated the agreement.³³ But the overwhelming vote which the treaty was able to command in both houses of the Nicaraguan Congress, together with the apparent absence of any widespread dissatisfaction, would indicate that probably a majority of the people of Nicaragua favored or acquiesced in the arrangement.³⁴ With their financial prostration rendered even more acute by the commercially disruptive effects of the world war, there is no reason for believing that they should have been other than pleased with the \$3,000,000, to say nothing of a step in the direction of building a canal which, if constructed, would not only increase the commercial importance of Nicaragua but would also make that country the direct beneficiary of many of the millions of dollars that would necessarily have to be spent there.³⁵

Whatever doubts may be entertained as to the reaction of Nicaragua, there was no mistaking the violent disapproval of other countries in Central America.³⁶ In the summer of 1913, when the protectorate feature was under discussion, reports were received from the legations of the United States in Costa Rica and Salvador of public demonstrations and inflammatory

repudiated. These views appear in a letter to Borah, dated January 7, 1915, which the latter read on the floor of the senate on January 13, 1927. *Cong. Record*, 69 Cong., 2 sess., p. 1557.

³³ *U. S. For. Rels.*, 1916, p. 832. See also Weitzel's statement quoted in *Cong. Record*, 69 Cong., 2 sess., p. 3114; *New York Times*, February 22, 1916.

³⁴ Even assuming that the Congress was packed with administration adherents. See also Weitzel, *loc. cit.*, pp. 23, 28; *New York Times*, June 24, 1914.

³⁵ Recent agitation in Nicaragua indicates that the people there are not blind to the advantages of the canal. See statements of President Moncada in *New York Times*, July 18, 1931; March 17, 1932; *Cong. Record*, 70 Cong., 2 sess., p. 4126. See also the letter of the Nicaraguan minister to the United States to Senator Edge, March 22, 1928, in *Senate Report*, 70 Cong., 1 sess., no. 771. See the statement of the Nicaraguan minister for foreign affairs. *New York Times*, July 15, 1929; also *Cong. Record*, 70 Cong., 1 sess., p. 9687; *New York Times*, November 21, 1926; May 14, 1928.

³⁶ See Root to Borah, January 7, 1915, *Cong. Record*, 69 Cong., 2 sess., p. 1557.

newspaper articles; and a year later Minister Hale wrote to the department of state from San José, Costa Rica, that five daily newspapers printed in that city were heaping abuse on the United States government and its people.³⁷ A citizen of the United States who was engaged in mining operations in Costa Rica informed Senator Gallinger that he was having serious difficulties with his labor because of the ill feeling engendered against his country by the Nicaragua canal negotiations, and he urged the senate to do what it could to allay the unrest.³⁸ And in February, 1914, the Nicaraguan minister at Washington wrote Secretary Bryan that so many protests had come in from the other Hispanic American nations that Nicaragua frankly needed the help of the United States.³⁹

Costa Rica, in particular, was profoundly disturbed by the Bryan-Chamorro treaty, and during its negotiation addressed fifteen strongly worded protests or other communications on the subject to the department of state.⁴⁰ The Costa Ricans were primarily concerned over the San Juan River, which constitutes a considerable portion of their northern boundary and which, if canalized, would adversely affect their riparian rights. Such an eventuality had been provided for by the treaty of 1858 between Costa Rica and Nicaragua, by which the latter was bound not to make any grants for canal purposes across its territory without first consulting its southern neighbor.⁴¹ Yet Nicaragua, with at least the tacit approval of the United States, deliberately ignored these stipulations. Deeply offended, Costa Rica presented its grievance to the department of state; but Secretary Bryan replied that the United States was not acquiring a grant for a canal but was merely purchasing an option on one. He added that when the

³⁷ *U. S. For. Rels.*, 1913, p. 1024; *ibid.*, 1914, p. 966; *New York Times*, July 21, 1913.

³⁸ Letter dated June 24, 1914, cited in *Cong. Record*, 63 Cong., 2 sess., p. 11285.

³⁹ *U. S. For. Rels.*, 1914, p. 954.

⁴⁰ Costa Rica also addressed protests to Nicaragua.

⁴¹ *U. S. For. Rels.*, 1914, p. 968; *U. S. and Nicaragua, 1909-32*, p. 30. The position of Costa Rica was strengthened by an award of President Cleveland in 1888.

time came to secure a canal zone from Nicaragua the interests and rights of Costa Rica would be properly consulted.⁴² But such assurances did little to salve a deeply wounded national pride; and the president of Costa Rica stated that his country would be satisfied, not with a money payment, but with nothing short of a share in the ownership of the proposed canal.⁴³

Costa Rica had one other grievance of a fundamental nature. It was quite evident that the United States, with a recently completed and enormously costly Panama Canal on its hands, had no intention of constructing a Nicaragua waterway at any time in the predictable future, and that the chief reason for negotiating the treaty had been to keep any other nation from securing the proposed route.⁴⁴ Alluding to this dog-in-the-manger policy, the Costa Rican minister for foreign affairs stated that his country would

celebrate with inexpressible satisfaction a convention for the construction of a canal, but not one expressly for the non-construction thereof, and the one that Nicaragua has concluded with the United States may be considered as in reality of this character.⁴⁵

We may conclude, therefore, that, all things considered, Costa Rica has had reason to feel profoundly displeased with the treaty; and has taken what comfort it could from assurances contained in that document itself and in an agreement negotiated by the United States and Costa Rica in 1923, which neither party has ratified, to the effect that the rights of Costa Rica will be respected when construction is actually begun.⁴⁶ This, however, is nothing more than was already provided for by existing engagements.

⁴² *U. S. For. Rels.*, 1914, pp. 964-965.

⁴³ *Ibid.*, pp. 967, 1106; *ibid.*, 1915, p. 1110. For a Costa Rican point of view on the Chamorro-Weitzel treaty, see Ramón Rojas Corrales, *El Tratado Chamorro-Weitzel ante Centro América y ante el Derecho Internacional* (San José, C. R., 1914).

⁴⁴ See *Cong. Record*, 63 Cong., 3 sess., p. 2309; *ibid.*, 70 Cong., 1 sess., p. 6993; *New York Times*, February 18, 1923.

⁴⁵ Queseda to Hale, February 19, 1915, *U. S. For. Rels.*, 1915, p. 1111.

⁴⁶ *U. S. and Nicaragua, 1909-32*, p. 32; *New York Times*, February 9, 10, 1923. President Harding sent this treaty to the Senate on February 3, 1923, where it re-

Salvador also entered the lists against the treaty, and from 1913 to 1916 lodged a half-dozen vigorous protests at Washington. The bone of contention in this case was the Bay of Fonseca, upon which Honduras and Salvador, as well as Nicaragua, border; and since Salvador regarded this body of water as being jointly shared by all three republics, it deeply resented the bartering away of its rights without being consulted. In addition, Salvador strongly opposed the extension of the influence of the United States into this region, and in protesting to Washington stressed the argument that the establishment of a naval base on the Bay of Fonseca exposed Salvador to the danger of becoming a future battle ground.⁴⁷ In order to quiet this unexpected uproar, Secretary Bryan expressed his willingness to purchase naval bases from both Salvador and Honduras, and although negotiations looking to this end were opened with Salvador, they were not pushed with sufficient vigor or sympathy to clear away the difficulty.⁴⁸

Nor did the trail of misunderstanding and distrust end here. The British ambassador to the United States, learning that the American bankers were planning to make off with the lion's share of the \$3,000,000, made firm representations in behalf of what he argued were the prior claims of British creditors.⁴⁹ And the republic of Colombia, although abandoning its position in 1928, protested on two different occasions against Nicaragua's leasing the Great and Little Corn islands,

mains. Technically, then, it has no binding force. Information provided by Treaty Division of the Department of State, March 1, 1934.

⁴⁷ See *U. S. For. Rels.*, 1913, pp. 1027-1031. Several of the earlier protests were concerned with the protectorate proposal, but the later ones were not. *Ibid.*, 1914, pp. 956-957, 960, 962-963; *ibid.*, 1916, pp. 814-817; 827-831. Honduras did not agree with Salvador's interpretation of joint ownership of the Bay of Fonseca. *Ibid.*, 1916, pp. 890-891.

⁴⁸ *Ibid.*, 1915, pp. 1105, 1115, 1116 *et seq.* Weitzel pointed out that the Central American republics who were opposing the grant for a naval station were flying in the face of their own precedents, for "each and all of the States of Central America have at one time or another offered to make similar grants of land to the United States". Weitzel, *loc. cit.*, p. 25.

⁴⁹ *U. S. For. Rels.*, 1915, pp. 1118-1119; *ibid.*, 1916, pp. 833-834, 837.

over which it claimed "indisputable sovereign rights".⁶⁰ To cap the climax, both Costa Rica and Salvador promptly carried their grievances to the Central American Court of Justice, which had been established in 1908 under the auspices of the United States, and in 1916 this body held that the rights of neither Costa Rica nor Salvador had been respected.⁶¹ The subsequent refusal of Nicaragua to abide by the decision, in which it was at least tacitly supported by the United States, was regarded as an important factor in the dissolution of the court in 1918.⁶²

All in all, the story of the Bryan-Chamorro treaty is not one that the United States can review with any degree of pride. In spite of Japanese, British, and German bogeys it is difficult to see why there was any need for haste. No private foreign concern, assuming that it was foolhardy enough to want to construct a rival canal, had sufficient capital to sink into such an enterprise; and no foreign government, assuming also a similar foolhardiness, could conceivably desire to challenge the Monroe Doctrine—there could be no surer way of challenging it—and provoke serious complications, if not war, over so hollow a prize. Nevertheless, the United States rode rough-shod over the pride, to say nothing of the rights, of weaker Hispanic American neighbors in dealing with a bayonet-supported government. Nor can it be argued that the United States was unaware of the grievances of the complain-

⁶⁰ *Ibid.*, 1913, p. 1032; *ibid.*, 1916, pp. 812-814. In 1928, Colombia negotiated a treaty with Nicaragua in which it relinquished to the latter its claim to sovereignty over the disputed islands. Ratifications were exchanged at Managua on May 5, 1930. League of Nations, *Treaty Series*, CV, 340-342.

⁶¹ But the court declared that since it had no jurisdiction over the United States it could not declare the treaty null and void. *U. S. and Nicaragua, 1909-32*, pp. 31-32; *U. S. For. Rels.*, 1916, p. 841, *et seq.*; *ibid.*, 1917, pp. 1100-1111.

⁶² See J. B. Scott, "Closing of the Central American Court of Justice", in *American Journal of International Law*, XII. (April 1918), 380-382. Dr. Roscoe B. Hill, a former member of the Nicaragua High Commission, to whom the writer of this paper is indebted for valuable suggestions, has presented evidence to show that the court, having become a political body in 1911, had largely destroyed its usefulness; and that any other important controversial issue probably would have caused its demise at this time. A. Curtis Wilgus, *The Caribbean Area* (Washington, D. C., 1934), pp. 280-281.

ants. More than three years elapsed before final action was taken, and during that time the aggrieved republics made known their views, not once but many times. And the pity of it is that if proper deference had been paid to the countries involved, and their rights purchased, the same end probably could have been accomplished with a minimum of friction. Wise policy would have dictated such a course even if the United States had been indisputably in the right. To be sure, it would have taken somewhat longer to adjust differences with all the republics at once, and it would have cost somewhat more; but on purely mercenary grounds it may well be doubted whether it was wise to pay so high a price in ill will for the concessions that were secured.

The protracted discussion of the Bryan-Chamorro treaty in the senate and the press of the United States naturally focused attention on the possibility of constructing a Nicaragua canal; but it was generally recognized that the time was not ripe for serious consideration of such a project. Yet within seven years, in February, 1923, a flurry of interest was aroused in the United States over the prospect of grappling in earnest with the problem. Early in that month the press reported that President Harding's cabinet had discussed the question of a second canal, and the argument had been advanced that in view of the recent and unprecedented gains in traffic at Panama, approaching forty per cent of capacity, it was only a matter of time before the Nicaragua route would be needed. The army engineers were thereupon asked to make a preliminary estimate, and when they reported that the total cost of such a project would approach the staggering figure of one billion dollars, the announcement was forthcoming that Harding had decided to drop the matter.⁵³

Some three years later, in 1926, revolutionary disturbances in Nicaragua again brought the canal question to the fore.

⁵³ New York Times, February 7, 10, 1923. See also letters to *ibid.* during February, 1923. The wisdom of Harding's decision was confirmed by the observations of Secretary Denby's congressional party, which visited the Panama canal in April, 1923. *Ibid.*, April 22, 1923.

President Díaz, who enjoyed the support of the United States, was having his hands full with his rival, Sacasa, who had been recognized only by Mexico. This confused situation gave rise to rumors that the Mexican government, tainted with Bolshevism, was seeking to displace the influence of the United States in war-torn Nicaragua; and the inference was drawn that if Mexico succeeded in establishing Sacasa in power the canal concessions that had been granted in 1916 would be cancelled.⁵⁴ Whatever foundation there may have been for such rumors—and it appears to have been flimsy—⁵⁵ the marines were landed and President Coolidge sent to congress, on January 10, 1927, an elaborate justification of the intervention. Alluding to the suspicious conduct of the Mexican government, he stressed particularly, even above American life and property and Central American stability, the “disturbances and conditions which seriously threaten . . . and put in jeopardy the rights granted by Nicaragua to the United States for the construction of a canal” together “with the necessary implications growing out of it affecting the Panama Canal. . . .”⁵⁶

In this way, and in no uncertain fashion, the United States enunciated a policy of intervention to protect its canal rights in Nicaragua;⁵⁷ and those who had criticized the Bryan-Chamorro treaty as providing one more excuse for the extension of Yankee imperialism found their prophecies fulfilled.⁵⁸ The democrats, in congress and out, roundly denounced the administration for having dragged out the Bolshevik bogey in

⁵⁴ Cox, *op. cit.*, p. 783; *et seq.*; C. W. Hackett, “A Review of our Policy in Nicaragua”, in *Current History*, XXIX. (November 1928), 288; *New York Times*, January 5, 1927.

⁵⁵ Sacasa and his (liberal) party had both put themselves on record, with reference to the canal route, as respecting international agreements. *Ibid.*, January 10, 1927; *Cong. Record*, 69 Cong., 2 sess., p. 1653.

⁵⁶ *House Document*, 69 Cong., 2 sess., no. 633. Général de Cugnac agreed that the Nicaragua canal route was “la cause profonde, la cause essentielle” of intervention. *Illustration*, 12 Mars 1927, p. 244. See also press excerpts in *Literary Digest*, April 30, 1927, p. 12.

⁵⁷ The Coolidge doctrine was restated and amplified in a resolution adopted by the house committee on foreign affairs on February 1, 1927. It was not approved by congress. *Cong. Record*, 69 Cong., 2 sess., p. 2820.

⁵⁸ See *New Republic*, January 23, 1929, p. 259.

a despicable attempt to prod Mexico into war, and for having used the canal treaty as "the flimsiest of pretenses" to conceal the real reason or reasons for intervention. Why, they asked, was it necessary to land a large force of marines to protect an unbuilt canal and unestablished naval bases which no amount of revolutionary disturbance could possibly injure?⁵⁹ The Coolidge administration may, indeed, have had convincing evidence of a real threat to canal control from foreign influence, but, if so, it took neither the opposition party nor the country at large into its confidence.

Late in March, 1927, less than three months after the submission of the message to congress, it was reported in the press that President Coolidge had become definitely interested in a second interoceanic waterway. Traffic at Panama, although not exceeding fifty per cent of what could be handled, had recently gone ahead by leaps and bounds to a point far in advance of expectations. Assuming that this rate of increase would continue indefinitely, the maximum capacity would be reached in approximately ten years. But since the building of new waterways and the enlarging of old ones involve years of construction work, to say nothing of preliminary negotiations, certain observers argued that it would be the part of wisdom to take definite steps to meet the problem before the evil day actually dawned. Such, at least, were the conclusions of Walter E. Edge, chairman of the senate committee on interoceanic canals, who, in March, 1927, returned from a visit of inspection at Panama with an enthusiasm for the Nicaragua waterway that he could ill conceal. He hastened to communicate his observations to Coolidge, and from this interview came the report that the president would investigate the necessity of enlarging existing canal facilities, with particular attention to a Nicaragua canal.⁶⁰

⁵⁹ *Cong. Record*, 69 Cong., 2 sess., p. 1428, *et passim*.

⁶⁰ *New York Times*, March 31, 1927. This revival of interest in the project was what probably induced Representative O'Connor, of Louisiana, to introduce a bill in congress, on December 6, 1927, designed to create a commission to ascertain the feasibility of constructing a Nicaragua canal. *Cong. Record*, 70 Cong., 1 sess., p. 149. On December 17, 1926, he had presented a similar measure. *Ibid.*,

It was not, however, until a year later, March, 1928, that Senator Edge introduced a resolution authorizing a detailed survey of the Nicaragua route.⁶¹ He explained that the increase in traffic at Panama pointed unmistakably to the conclusion that in the near future steps would have to be taken to enlarge the Panama canal or build a new one, and that congress could not act intelligently upon such intricate and costly problems unless authoritative information were placed before it.⁶² In answer to objections, he asserted, not once but many times, that the resolution was concerned only with the collection of data and in no wise committed the United States to the construction of a new canal. In his opinion the Nicaragua survey was but the next step in carrying out the objectives of the Bryan-Chamorro treaty, and he felt that good business practice required that steps be taken to see what should be done to utilize the \$3,000,000 investment already made.⁶³

However careful Senator Edge may have been to state only his immediate objectives, his colleague, Senator McKellar, came definitely out into the open. On March 27, 1928, he introduced a bill to appropriate \$200,000,000 for the construction, maintenance, and operation of a Nicaragua canal. With a naïve disregard for engineering costs he concluded that this sum would be more than ample for a sea level waterway, and with a zeal for his proposal that ignored facts he concluded that "the Panama canal in, say, six years will not be able to afford passage to the ships that will be applying to

69 Cong., 1 sess., p. 687. As early as March 4, 1921, Representative Randall, of California, had introduced a joint resolution authorizing a commission to report on a proposal to construct a Nicaragua canal. *Ibid.*, 66 Cong., 3 sess., p. 4546. The Edge resolution was the only one of these proposals to be seriously discussed.

⁶¹ *Ibid.*, 70 Cong., 1 sess., p. 5092. On May 3, 1928, Representative Denison introduced a joint resolution authorizing an investigation and survey of a Nicaragua canal. He reintroduced it on January 30, 1929. *Cong. Record*, 70 Cong., 1 sess., p. 7786; *ibid.*, 70 Cong., 2 sess., p. 2507.

⁶² The great amount of congressional misinformation on this entire subject pointed to the desirability of securing reliable data. See particularly Senator Overman's errors, *ibid.*, 70 Cong., 1 sess., p. 9686.

⁶³ See *ibid.*, pp. 8088, 9686, 9687, 9688.

go through it''.⁶⁴ Although nothing came of this bill, the interpolations of the senators during McKellar's speech indicated that there was a growing interest in the problem.

Late in 1928, a new impetus was given to the campaign for a second canal. While stopping at Nicaragua on his Hispanic American good-will tour, President-elect Hoover met President Díaz and President-elect Moncada, both of whom made warm representations in behalf of their route.⁶⁵ Mr. Hoover, however, was noncommittal; but the incident did a great deal to focus attention in the United States on a Nicaragua canal. When congress met the following December, Senator Edge pushed his resolution for the survey with renewed vigor,⁶⁶ and his arguments for the project attracted the favorable attention of a number of leading newspapers.⁶⁷ William Randolph Hearst threw his influence behind the proposal, asserting that a second canal was necessary on commercial and military grounds, and adding that public opinion appeared to be wholeheartedly in favor of the Nicaragua route.⁶⁸ And the American Engineering Council, representing 44,000 engineers, enthusiastically endorsed the Edge resolution, with the hope, of course, that employment would be provided for their membership.⁶⁹

Nevertheless, the Edge resolution, together with the accompanying \$150,000 appropriation for the survey, encountered vigorous objections in both houses of Congress.⁷⁰ In brief, these ran as follows: Such a project was both premature

⁶⁴ *Ibid.*, pp. 5415, 5441, *et seq.*; 7067. About this time, on April 16, 1928, Senator Brookhart introduced a bill to provide more effectually for protecting the rights of the United States in a Nicaragua canal. *Ibid.*, pp. 6490-6491. On March 17, 1930, McKellar again introduced a bill for constructing a Nicaragua waterway. *Ibid.*, 71 Cong., 2 sess., p. 5376.

⁶⁵ *New York Times*, November 28, 1928; *Cong. Record*, 70 Cong., 2 sess., p. 4126.

⁶⁶ See particularly speech in *ibid.*, pp. 725-730.

⁶⁷ See newspaper excerpts in *ibid.*, pp. 1040-1041.

⁶⁸ Letter to Representative Black, February 5, 1929, *ibid.*, p. 3020.

⁶⁹ *Ibid.*, pp. 2330, 4142.

⁷⁰ A minority report, signed by five members, was submitted. *House Report*, 70 Cong., 2 sess., no. 2774.

and useless, and if anything were to be done at all a much less expensive survey of the means of enlarging existing facilities should be undertaken.⁷¹ Besides, the undue haste and pressure connected with the resolution suggested that there was something clandestine behind the whole business. Probably the resolution itself was just "a sugar-coated" method of preparing for and committing the United States to the construction of a canal, or perhaps the administration was planning to use the survey as an excuse for keeping the marines in Nicaragua indefinitely. At all events, the whole agitation should be dropped before the cupidity of Nicaragua and the apprehension of the other Central American republics were further excited.⁷²

Probably the most serious obstacle to the resolution was the opposition of the middle western senators and representatives, a group that will doubtless be heard from again if the Nicaragua enterprise ever materializes. Their principal grievances were two in number: (1) A Nicaragua canal would divert money from and make impossible the projected system of interior waterways, including the St. Lawrence plan and the development of the Mississippi and its tributaries,⁷³ (2) The Panama Canal had resulted in discrimination against the middle west in the matter of freight rates, and a Nicaragua route would only aggravate this condition.⁷⁴ Such grievances resulted in a vigorous fight, the high light of which was a six-

⁷¹ *Cong. Record*, 70 Cong., 2 sess., pp. 4127, 4141, 4143, 4228, 4934.

⁷² *House Report*, 70 Cong., 2 sess., no. 2774; *Cong. Record*, 70 Cong., 2 sess., pp. 1627, 1628, 4804, 4925. Cupidity was aroused. *New York Times*, March 25, 1930. Representative Jacobstein, of New York, had reason to believe, from letters written by his constituents, that land-owning interests in Nicaragua were behind the scheme. *Cong. Record*, 70 Cong., 2 sess., p. 4804.

⁷³ *Ibid.*, pp. 2334, 4925, 4929; *New York Times*, April 3, 1927, January 13, March 22, 1929. Interest was also expressed in what were thought to be the prior claims of Mississippi flood control, the Columbia river basin, and the widening of the Cape Cod canal. *Cong. Record*, 70 Cong., 2 sess., pp. 4227-4228.

⁷⁴ By means of the Panama canal goods could be sent more cheaply from the Atlantic coast to the Pacific coast of the United States by water than from the middle west to either coast. This situation was alleged to have caused a number of manufacturers formerly established in the middle west to move to the Atlantic seaboard. See *ibid.*, pp. 728, 1628, 4144, 4220, 4926.

hour filibuster by Senator Dill;⁷⁵ but in the end the resolution, amended so as to provide also for a study of means of increasing facilities at Panama, passed both houses of congress and was signed by the president on March 2, 1929. The \$150,000 appropriation encountered strong opposition, particularly in the senate, but it, too, was finally approved.⁷⁶

A provisional battalion of engineer troops, commanded by Lieutenant-Colonel Dan I. Sultan, was thereupon selected to survey the proposed route. The Nicaragua government eagerly gave its permission to go ahead with the work,⁷⁷ and the first of the party arrived in Nicaragua in August, 1929. During the ensuing two years the engineers accomplished a truly remarkable feat in the face of obstacles which only tropical swamps and jungles, to say nothing of other hazards, can present.⁷⁸ A short time before the completion of the survey, as if an evil genius were pursuing the Nicaragua route, a devastating earthquake demolished the nearby city of Managua with an appalling loss of life.⁷⁹ Colonel Sultan and the advocates of a Nicaragua canal, including the interested officials at Washington, D. C., were immediately placed on the defensive, and although they produced statistics and other data to show that the danger to canal structures from earthquakes was no greater at Nicaragua than at Panama, it was perfectly evident that public opinion in the United States was far from

⁷⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 4577, *et seq.* Dill was from the state of Washington, but he allied himself on this issue with the middle western senators.

⁷⁶ The only record vote on either measure in either house was that in the senate (54-19) on the appropriation. *Ibid.*, pp. 4669, 4969. For texts of the Edge resolution and the accompanying appropriation as passed, see *House Doc.*, 72 Cong., 1 sess., no. 139, pp. 45-46.

⁷⁷ See statement of Nicaragua minister of foreign affairs. *New York Times*, June 15, 1929.

⁷⁸ For a colorful account see Lieut. Col. Dan I. Sultan, "An Army Engineer Explores Nicaragua", in *National Geographic Magazine*, LXI. (May, 1932), pp. 593-627. For a less personal and less descriptive statement, see Sultan's official report in *House Document*, 72 Cong., 1 sess., no. 139.

⁷⁹ Early reports indicated that over 1,000 perished. *New York Times*, April 1, 1931.

being convinced.⁸⁰ No one could deny that there were active volcanoes in Nicaragua not many miles from the proposed route; and although experts might explain away this hazard, such phenomena, as Bunau-Varilla could testify, have a powerful effect upon the imagination. The New York *Times* not inaptly remarked that "even extinct volcanoes may spout lava in Congress".⁸¹

In December, 1931, the data which had been collected regarding the Nicaragua route and the possible methods of enlarging the facilities of the Panama Canal were presented to Congress. The time was certainly not propitious for the Nicaragua enthusiasts. Not only had the recent earthquake done something to blight their hopes, but also the effects of the world-wide depression had been such as completely to refute the argument that congestion at Panama necessitated another canal in the near future.⁸² Furthermore, the construction of a Nicaragua waterway, the estimated cost of which had been based on Central American labor, would do nothing to meet the pressing unemployment problem; and the enormous expense involved, estimated by Colonel Sultan at \$722,000,000, made the project seem visionary to a people faced with retrenchment and unbalanced budgets.⁸³ The Interoceanic Canal Board, consisting of five experts who had been appointed by the president,⁸⁴ reviewed the elaborate data accumulated by Colonel Sultan and the governor of the Panama Canal, and concluded that although the survey had shown a lock canal across Nicaragua to be practicable, "no immediate steps must be taken to provide increased facilities for passing waterborne traffic from ocean to ocean". It further stated that although two other possible alternatives appeared at that time

⁸⁰ See *ibid.*, March 31, April 8, 1928; March 10, April 4, 1930; April 2, 10, 11, 1931.

⁸¹ *Ibid.*, July 30, 1931.

⁸² In fact, the year before the Edge Resolution was passed, 1928, has proved to be the most profitable year in the entire history of the canal.

⁸³ *House Document*, 72 Cong., 1 sess., no. 139, p. 18 (Report of Interoceanic Canal Board); New York *Times*, July 30, November 1, December 17, 1931.

⁸⁴ In 1929. Four of the group, including Sultan, spent some time on the site. *Ibid.*, January 29, 1931.

to be preferable to a Nicaragua waterway, such a route should receive favorable consideration when "increased canal facilities are actually needed".⁸⁵

It may be gathered from this last statement, as well as from other sources of information,⁸⁶ that the Nicaragua canal issue is by no means dead. Too many powerful interests have a vital concern in this project to permit it to die.⁸⁷ They are merely biding their time until an opportune moment arrives, and then the old arguments will be refurbished and used again—perhaps with greater success. It would seem, therefore, that a useful purpose would be served, if an attempt were made, to analyze both sides of this question, examine critically the data which were gathered as a result of the Edge resolution, and consider all of this material in the light of developments that have occurred during the past few years.

In the first place, has the Panama Canal proved to be a profitable enterprise? The Nicaragua advocates maintained, in 1928 and 1929, that it had been, and during the debates on the Edge resolution alleged that it was returning seven and one-half per cent on the investment, and even suggested that a second waterway might be built with profits from the first one.⁸⁸ As a matter of fact, the Panama Canal never has been financially self-supporting, and perhaps never will be. The confusion in regard to this matter has arisen from the illusory system of accounting which obtained from 1922 to 1932. During these years millions of dollars were charged off to the national defense account which were not properly construction

⁸⁵ *House Document*, 72 Cong., 1 sess., no. 139, p. 18.

⁸⁶ See particularly the *New York Times*, December 17, 1931.

⁸⁷ A list of such interests would include the Nicaragua government and its adherents; Americans with investments in Nicaragua, particularly in land; certain military and naval groups in the United States; shippers interested in cheaper and more rapid intercoastal transportation by water; American manufacturers of machinery and materials that would be used in constructing the canal; groups of civilian engineers who would expect employment; and those, of whom there are many, who still think that it was a mistake to forsake the Nicaragua for the Panama route.

⁸⁸ *New York Times*, February 7, 18, 1923, March 31, 1927; *Cong. Record*, 70 Cong., 1 sess., p. 5443; *ibid.*, 70 Cong., 2 sess., pp. 1040-1041.

expenses but which did bulk large in the total cost of the canal. In 1928, for example, \$275,000,000 was regarded as representing the commercial investment, and \$115,000,000, which included the payment of \$38,000,000 to the French canal company and \$10,000,000 to Panama, was written off as national defense costs.⁸⁹ Using the \$275,000,000, and disregarding the other liabilities, proponents of the Nicaragua canal could work out their seven per cent profit. In 1932, however, a new accounting system was installed in order to place revenue and capital investment in their proper proportion. The revised figure included the national defense costs, interest charges on money withdrawn from the treasury during the construction period, and other liabilities, with the result that it rose from \$275,000,000 in 1928 to \$533,000,000 in 1932. On this new and fairer basis of computation the governor of the canal estimated that during the most profitable year of operation, 1928, the net profit was one-half of one per cent.⁹⁰

It should further be noted that even this revised figure does not contain a number of items which taxpayers in the United States, though perhaps not the canal accountants, could properly regard as charges against the enterprise. No consideration has been given to the cost of fortification (over \$58,000,000); of the annual cost of maintaining a military establishment of eleven thousand men (approximately \$20,000,000); of the cost of securing outlying bases to protect the canal (including the \$25,000,000 paid to Denmark for the Danish West Indies); of the \$25,000,000 consolation money given Colombia; and finally of the amortization of the total cost of the investment.⁹¹ If, without these charges, the canal showed a profit of only one-half of one per cent during 1928 (appar-

⁸⁹ *Annual Report of the Governor of the Panama Canal, 1928*, p. 5.

⁹⁰ *Annual Report, 1932*, pp. 113-114, 115, 140. In 1932 the canal returned 2.22 per cent on the investment, and in 1933, 2.23 per cent, falling short of the three per cent interest computed on the investment. *Ibid.*, 1933, p. 121.

⁹¹ See J. F. Stevens, "Is a Second Canal Necessary?", in *Foreign Affairs*, VIII. (April, 1930), 415-429; *Annual Report of the Governor of the Panama Canal, 1932*, p. 115; *ibid.*, 1933, p. 2. The statements regarding fortifications, the military establishment, and the Columbia indemnity have been confirmed by high authority.

ently the only year between 1914 and 1933 when it did clear expenses), it is perfectly evident that the enterprise, whatever its admittedly great value in other respects, has not been financially self-supporting.⁹²

Another simple exercise in arithmetic awaits us. It is estimated that approximately two-thirds of the shipping now using the Panama Canal would find a Nicaragua route from a day and a half to a third of a day shorter.⁹³ If the Panama Canal is already a losing enterprise, what will be the effect of diverting two-thirds of its traffic to another waterway?⁹⁴ If the present canal cannot return a profit, how can another and more expensive one (costing over \$200,000,000 more) do so? The result would probably be that the United States would have two financial liabilities on its hands instead of one.⁹⁵ To offset a portion of this additional loss, it is not illogical to suppose that the tolls of both canals would have to be raised considerably above the present level.⁹⁶ And if this should be done, much, if not all, of what the shippers presumably would save in fuel and other operating expenses by using the shorter Nicaragua route would be wiped out.⁹⁷

⁹² It has been argued that the Panama canal has saved the United States the cost of maintaining a strong fleet in each ocean, but it should not be forgotten that, even before the canal was built, such a policy was not pursued. See T. A. Bailey, *Theodore Roosevelt and the Japanese-American Crises* (Stanford University, 1934), Ch. X, *et passim*.

⁹³ *House Document*, 72 Cong., 1 sess., no. 139, pp. 17, 107, 201-202, 205. Although the Nicaragua route would be 430 miles shorter for United States inter-coastal trade, the greater length and curvature of this canal would cut the time saving down to about .87 of a 24 hour day. *Ibid.*, p. 201. In 1928, the operating expense per sea day of the average cargo ship was \$500. *Cong. Record.*, 70 Cong., 2 sess., p. 728.

⁹⁴ The Panama canal would have to be kept in first-class shape even if two-thirds of its traffic were diverted. The argument that the Nicaragua canal would develop enough new trade to offset such losses has been met by the reply that a transcontinental railroad, costing about \$25,000,000, would accomplish the same end.

⁹⁵ Two unprofitable canals would be in the nature of a subsidy to world, as well as to United States, merchant marine.

⁹⁶ In recent years suggestions have been made to increase the tolls charges. See *Annual Report of the Governor of the Panama Canal*, 1929, p. 75.

⁹⁷ At a certain point in congestion, if it is ever reached, or during peak days and overhaul periods, it may prove cheaper for the United States and more satis-

From a purely financial point of view, then, one may well doubt whether it will ever be advisable to build a Nicaragua canal. If congestion at Panama necessitates an increase of interoceanic facilities—and in 1931 the governor of the canal reported that such a step probably would not have to be taken until about 1970⁹⁸—a third set of locks, even larger than the present ones and paralleling them, may be built. This operation would cost \$140,000,000 and would add fifty million tons to the present capacity of the canal. The Nicaragua waterway, on the other hand, would cost \$722,000,000 and add only eighty million tons.⁹⁹ It should be further noted that the construction of even a fourth set of locks at Panama would be entirely practicable.¹⁰⁰ In fact, the capacity of the present canal is limited only by the amount of water available for lockages. For a time it was feared that the maximum water supply, even with the addition of the Madden reservoir, was being approached, but recent experiments have shown that it is entirely practicable and relatively inexpensive to pump sea water in unlimited quantities up to the locks.¹⁰¹ In other words, with the construction of such additional locks as may be needed, the Panama Canal probably will be able to accommodate all the traffic that will ever seek to enter it.

The Interoceanic Canal Board, as we have observed, found the Nicaragua route feasible and worthy of serious considerations; but it also concluded that there were two other possible solutions of future traffic needs that would be preferable: (1) the construction of a third set of locks, (2) the cutting down

factory for the shippers to inaugurate a system of rebates for time lost in awaiting transit rather than face the loss that would be sure to come from building a second canal.

⁹⁸ *House Document*, 72 Cong., 1 sess., no. 139, pp. 26-27. Such predictions are based on estimates of future world traffic, and these are unreliable. It is possible that world commerce may reach its high point during this century, or, perhaps, has already reached it.

⁹⁹ *Ibid.*, pp. 2, 3, 30.

¹⁰⁰ See Stevens, *loc. cit.*, p. 420.

¹⁰¹ *Annual Report of the Governor of the Panama Canal, 1931*, p. 83; *House Document*, 72 Cong., 1 sess., no. 139, p. 31.

of the Panama Canal into a sea level waterway.¹⁰² This second possibility would eliminate all large locks, which greatly delay shipping, and would probably result in a canal capable of meeting the demands of commerce for all time. Such a canal, however, would cost about a billion dollars, nearly \$300,000,000 more than the Nicaragua route, and, to avoid interruption of traffic, would require twenty-five to thirty years for construction. Although the estimated cost is staggering, considerations of defense, which we shall now examine, seem to favor this type of waterway.¹⁰³

The defense argument is probably the weightiest one that can now be advanced in favor of a secondary canal.¹⁰⁴ In the event of a major war the naval arm of the United States would be seriously handicapped, if not crippled, should the fleets be unable to join forces or pass into either ocean by means of an isthmian waterway.¹⁰⁵ There is always the possibility that the Panama route may be blocked at a critical moment by sabotage, aerial attacks, or even by accidents, earthquakes, slides, and floods.¹⁰⁶ The danger of interruption at a given time would consequently be greatly decreased if there were two interoceanic canals. On the merits of the defense argument, however, the military and naval experts are not in unanimous agreement, although a strong majority of them appear to favor a secondary waterway.¹⁰⁷ There is, in fact, something to be said for the proposition that one canal is easier to defend

¹⁰² *Ibid.*, p. 18.

¹⁰³ *Ibid.*, p. 2.

¹⁰⁴ *House Document*, 72 Cong., 1 sess., no. 139, pp. 15, 17, 107-109.

¹⁰⁵ The blocking of the canal might not prove disastrous if the fleet were not met by an overwhelming force while divided. For a criticism of certain aspects of the naval weaknesses of the Panama canal see Admiral Degouy, "Le Canal du Nicaragua et la Stratégie Américaine", in *Revue des Deux Mondes*, XXXVIII. (1927), pp. 446-460.

¹⁰⁶ Such natural interruptions occur occasionally for short periods. See *Annual Report of the Governor of the Panama Canal*, 1932, p. 2, 1933, p. 2.

¹⁰⁷ For this statement, as well as certain other information included in this paragraph, the writer is indebted to his colleague, Professor Ralph H. Lutz, who a short time ago made an exhaustive study of the strategic possibilities of a secondary canal.

than two,¹⁰⁸ and that with a small portion of the money that would have to go into the Nicaragua route, the Panama Canal could be made virtually impregnable, if it is not already so. Recent developments in anti-aircraft guns have greatly decreased the chances of a successful bombing attack,¹⁰⁹ and the danger of natural interruptions is so slight as to be almost negligible. Furthermore, the projected Nicaragua route, like that at Panama, is a lock canal; and locks are the very structures upon which an enemy would concentrate its efforts. From the standpoint of defense, therefore, it would seem as if a well-fortified sea-level canal, aside from its other desirable features, would insure greater naval security than two lock canals.¹¹⁰ In any event, although a Nicaragua canal of the lock type would probably insure somewhat greater naval security than the present facilities, it would be extremely difficult to convince the American taxpayer, at least on the basis of any evidence that has yet been forthcoming, that the additional safety would justify the enormous expense involved.

The proponents of a Nicaragua canal have made much of the argument that from an economic, political, and diplomatic point of view this great project would have a stabilizing effect upon Central America.¹¹¹ In fact, certain enthusiasts have gone so far as to assert that on these grounds alone the undertaking would be worth the cost.¹¹² Their view is that the spending of vast sums of money in Central America for construction work, and the boom to commerce following the completion of the waterway, would bring prosperity to that area; and the elimination of hunger and economic distress would

¹⁰⁸ See Stevens, *loc. cit.*, p. 428.

¹⁰⁹ Information provided by Major W. J. Crook and Captain I. A. Luke, both of Stanford University.

¹¹⁰ A sea level canal at Panama, however, would require a tidal dam, which would present a point of vulnerability.

¹¹¹ *House Document*, 72 Cong., 1 sess., no. 139, pp. 3, 15, 17, 109; *New York Times*, November 29, 1929; December 17, 1931; *Cong. Record*, 70 Cong., 1 sess., p. 8088.

¹¹² See *ibid.*, 70 Cong., 2 sess., p. 729.

remove one of the most fruitful causes of revolution and banditry.¹¹³ There would, consequently, be less pressure for foreign intervention, with the result that the United States would be able to establish better relations with its Central American neighbors and, indirectly, with all Hispanic America.

Assuming that all of these things would come to pass, the question may be raised as to whether a new canal is not a high price for the United States to pay for them. And with regard to the quieting effect of the enterprise upon the Hispanic American republics, there is another side to the shield. Panama is certainly not overjoyed at the prospect of a rival canal that will impair its prosperity and cut off a part of its revenue,¹¹⁴ and Colombia has not completely abandoned hope for its Atrato river route.¹¹⁵ Moreover, Salvador and Costa Rica still remember the unfortunate events from 1913 and 1916. Nevertheless, these two Central American republics are fully cognizant of the advantages, economic and otherwise, that would accrue to them should a canal be built; and there is every reason to believe that they will promptly forget all of their grievances and willingly make the necessary concessions when the United States is prepared to pay them a sufficiently large sum of money. In fact, much of the furore between 1913 and 1916 was probably caused by jealousy over Nicaragua's good fortune in securing the \$3,000,000 and by a desire to extort a similar sum from the United States.

Nor can we overlook the attitude of Hispanic America toward the construction of a Nicaragua canal by the United States. Several years ago the editor of *Repertorio Americano* conducted a symposium in which dozens of intellectual

¹¹³ Sultan, *loc. cit.*, pp. 610-612; *Cong. Record*, 70 Cong., 1 sess., p. 5445; *ibid.*, 70 Cong., 2 sess., p. 729.

¹¹⁴ *New York Times*, March 25, 1930.

¹¹⁵ *New York Times*, November 12, 1929. See also Alvaro Rebolledo, *Reseña Historico-Política de la Comunicación Inter-Oceánica* (San Francisco, Calif., 1930), pp. 310-326.

leaders in Hispanic America and Spain participated.¹¹⁶ The response indicated clearly that the United States would incur widespread disfavor among its southern neighbors should it embark upon such an enterprise. But if, on the other hand, a Nicaraguan waterway should be constructed as an international project, shared by the Hispanic American countries, and should be left unfortified, it would be warmly welcomed. Furthermore, as this investigation revealed, there is general uneasiness over the virtual protectorate which the United States would have to extend over Nicaragua should it decide to construct and fortify a canal there; for the project would result in additional excuses for landing marines, in the maintenance of a large military establishment, and in the acquisition of an even larger canal zone than exists at Panama.¹¹⁷ And, finally, the symposium indicated that there is still profound dissatisfaction with the Bryan-Chamorro treaty in Hispanic America.

In conclusion, we may observe that if the data which have been used in this study possess validity, a Nicaragua canal—barring totally unforeseen developments in commerce, navigation, and naval strategy—will not have to be built at any time within the predictable future. It would seem, therefore, as if the best interests of both the United States and Hispanic America would be served should agitation for such a waterway be avoided until such time as a real need for it becomes apparent.

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¹¹⁶ A detailed summary of this symposium appears in Carleton Beals, "Can the U. S. A. Flout Spanish-American Sentiment", in *The American Scholar*, I. (October 1932), 433-442.

¹¹⁷ Colonel Sultan reported that the United States would have to establish complete political jurisdiction over the zone, as at Panama, and that because of recent developments in defense technique, such a zone would have to be considerably wider in places than that at Panama. *House Document*, 72 Cong., 1 sess., no. 139, pp. 61, 64. Even the survey of Colonel Sultan aroused strong opposition in certain Hispanic American quarters. See *New York Times*, September 1, 1929.

ANDRÉS SANTA CRUZ AND THE PERU-BOLIVIAN CONFEDERATION

Simón Bolívar is justly famous throughout the western hemisphere for his great achievement in making Venezuela, Colombia, and Ecuador into a single political unit. The only other man in South America who succeeded in a similar accomplishment, Andrés Santa Cruz of Bolivia, has been relegated to a place far less prominent than he deserves. Unlike the great Colombian, Santa Cruz has not been the subject of an extensive literature, either in Spanish or in English. Nevertheless, the figure of Santa Cruz emerges as one of the great men of South America, not for military prowess, but for constructive political thinking and sound administrative practices.

Born in 1792, while Spain still ruled over the greater part of the western world, Andrés Santa Cruz became in due time an officer of the Spanish colonial forces. His father had served in a like capacity, and had been made lieutenant governor of the district of Azangaro. The tradition of loyalty to the overseas government was so strong in his family that when the revolution finally broke out, he remained true to the old flag. When only fifteen years of age, he began his active military career in the suppression of the abortive revolution in 1807, serving under Goyeneche, "who is recorded as being the genius of ambition, intrigue, and cruelty".¹ He entered the Spanish army with the rank of captain, "thanks to the influence which his father had with the Spanish authorities".²

For ten years, Santa Cruz fought to suppress the rebellion, but in 1821, after he had been captured for the second time by the insurrectionists, he abandoned the cause of the king and

¹ Agustín Iturricha, *Historia de Bolivia bajo la administración del mariscal Andrés Santa Cruz* (Sucre, 1920), I. 811. (Hereafter cited as Iturricha, *Bolivia*.)

² Julio Díaz A., *Los generales de Bolivia (Esajos biográficos), 1825-1925* (La Paz, 1929), p. 29.

became a soldier in the army commanded by San Martín. Operating in his native Bolivia, Santa Cruz had success as long as he held a subordinate position. When, in 1823, he was made commander of an expedition along the Desaguadero River, he showed that he possessed no real military ability. In discussing his failure, the United States agent to Chile said in his report to John Quincy Adams that Santa Cruz had every advantage of position, and possessed a cavalry force which was competent to resist the Spanish general. Instead of attacking, he ordered a retreat, "and by so doing caused a panic among his Troops, which has cost him in desertion more than one half of his force".³

It is interesting to note something of this strange man's character. Physically he was strong and robust, with black eyes which, in the words of Vicente Fidel López, "had a slow and restful, though oblique and evasive, gaze". A contemporary newspaper described him as a brunette, completely beardless, with a long, well-formed and sharp-pointed, though not aquiline, nose.⁴ Santa Cruz's mother was a pure-blooded Indian who claimed descent from the Inca. His father, if the account of Oscar Santa Cruz is to be believed, could trace his genealogy back as far as 1212, when a remote ancestor had been knighted for valor in the battle of Las Navas de Tolosa.⁵ He inherited both good and bad qualities of the Indian from his mother. At the battle of Pichincha, his reckless valor was so great that Bolívar promoted him to the rank of brigadier general.⁶ Opposed to this trait, Arguedas records that he

³ John B. Prevost to John Quincy Adams, November 27, 1823, in William Ray Manning, *Diplomatic Correspondence of the United States concerning the Independence of the Latin-American Nations* (New York, 1925), 1089. (Hereafter cited as Manning, *Diplomatic Correspondence*.)

⁴ Alcides Arguedas, *Historia de Bolivia. Los Caudillos letrados; la Confederación Peru-Boliviana. Ingavi, o la Consolidación de la Nacionalidad, 1822-1848* (Barcelona, 1923), p. 70. (Hereafter cited as Arguedas, *Los Caudillos letrados*.) Arguedas does not give the exact reference, saying merely "copy of a newspaper".

⁵ Oscar Santa Cruz, "El Gran Mariscal Santa Cruz—Datos para la Historia", in Iturricha, *Bolivia*, I. 807.

⁶ Díaz, *Los Generales de Bolivia*, p. 29.

"had strange sinuosities and an innate and atavistic inclination to intrigue and duplicity worthy of his Indian forebears".⁷ Sucre considered him a traitor both by character and by inclination.⁸

Santa Cruz had tremendous ambition, which was the dominating force of his personality. Almost equal to this was his vanity, which manifested itself particularly in his dress, which was habitually that of a diplomat. So impressive was he that Hugh Wilson, the consul of Great Britain, wrote to a friend, "I assure you that I approach this Indian with greater respect than I feel for the king of England".⁹ Santa Cruz had great powers of intrigue, and was known as the "premier intrigue maker in the world of Columbus".¹⁰ He was sullen, suspicious, and captious, according to Arguedas; yet William Tudor, United States consul at Lima, said he was "amiable and affable in his manners, but his conduct was wavering and uncertain . . . he is cursed with an unfortunate mixture of qualities, is timid, indecisive, and ambitious".¹¹

He is uniformly commended for his prodigious industry. Everyone around him worked constantly, under Santa Cruz's close supervision. He was able to do things rapidly, but he conceived too many ideas at once, and frequently got nowhere as a result. He was thrifty to the point of meanness, but this trait made him an admirable administrator. He was a kind father and was devoted to his wife, whom he married sometime between the years 1817 and 1820.¹²

⁷ Alcides Arguedas, *Historia de Bolivia: La Fundación de la Republica* (La Paz, 1920), p. 394.

⁸ Sucre to Bolívar, July 3, 1827, in Daniel Florencio O'Leary, *Cartas de Sucre al Libertador* (Madrid, 1919), II. 169. (Hereafter cited as O'Leary, *Sucre*.)

⁹ Quoted in Díaz, *Los Generales de Bolivia*, p. 34.

¹⁰ "Refutación de cien mil Restadores al Manifiesto" (Sucre, 1843), in Arguedas, *Los Caudillos letrados*, p. 70.

¹¹ Tudor to Henry Clay, March 23, 1827, in Manning, *Diplomatic Correspondence*, p. 1830.

¹² Arguedas, *Los Caudillos letrados*, p. 72. Tudor to Henry Clay, November 25, 1826, said that Santa Cruz was not a married man (Manning, *Diplomatic Correspondence*).

Unlike many of the prominent South American historical figures, Santa Cruz does not win a place in the hall of fame through his soldierly qualities. His gifts were largely those of the administrator. In that field he was truly remarkable; he was, moreover, an astute, if unscrupulous, politician. His administrative abilities were first recognized by Bolívar. After the defeat of the Desaguadero, the Liberator was constrained to relieve the unsuccessful general of his command in the field, but retained him as chief of staff of the armies of independence. In this capacity, Santa Cruz served until the end of the war, apparently acquitting himself in a manner satisfactory to his great chieftain.¹³

The establishment of Hispanic American independence saw Santa Cruz a major general in command of the troops of Peru, a rank conferred on him, not as a result of his military activities, but as a reward for his support of José de la Riva Agüero, in 1823, in the successful conspiracy which landed that adventurous individual in the presidency of Peru.¹⁴ Santa Cruz had left so deep and favorable an impression on the mind of Bolívar that when the Liberator was called back to Colombia in 1826, he installed his former chief of staff as president of the council of government.¹⁵ It was then that Santa Cruz gave a characteristic illustration of the cold-blooded duplicity which constitutes so regrettable a feature of his character. Although bound by ties of gratitude to Bolívar, he made no attempt to repress the revolt which broke out in that year against the absent Liberator.¹⁶ This was, in effect, to support

¹³ Ramón Sotomayor Valdés, *Historia de Chile bajo el Gobierno del Jeneral D. Joaquín Prieto* (Santiago de Chile, 1901), II. 50. (Hereafter cited as Sotomayor Valdés, *Prieto*.)

¹⁴ Carlos I. Salas, *Bibliografía del Coronel Don Federico de Brandsen* (Buenos Aires, 1910), pp. 237-241.

¹⁵ Bolívar to Santa Cruz, April 6, 1826, in *Cartas del Libertador* (Caracas, 1929) V. 265; John Miller, *Memoirs of General Miller, in the service of the Republic of Peru* (2v. London, 1828, 2d ed. 1829), p. 340.

¹⁶ That events in Peru at the time of the mutiny of January 26, 1827, were somewhat confused is abundantly brought out in the letters of Heman Allen, United States minister to Chile, to Henry Clay, published in Manning, *Diplomatic*

the uprising, which was quite orderly, if the contemporary accounts are credible. During the interim when there was no official government, Santa Cruz discharged the duties of president of the council of government.¹⁷ He called a constituent convention to meet on May 1, 1827 to draw up a new constitution, and to choose a successor to Bolívar.¹⁸ No doubt Santa Cruz hoped that the result of this election would be his elevation to the permanent presidency of Peru. The time was not ripe, however, and José La Mar y Cortazar obtained the prize.¹⁹ Knowing how Santa Cruz helped to overthrow the authority of Bolívar, La Mar got his rival out of the country as quickly as possible,²⁰ by sending him as Peruvian minister to Chile.²¹

While Santa Cruz was in Chile, Sucre resigned the presidency of Bolivia, nominating as his successor Santa Cruz.²² The latter was duly elected to that office by the constituent congress,²³ but before he could disembarass himself of his diplomatic position and go home to claim his new honors, a general named Pedro Blanco usurped the presidential office. Santa Cruz, however, had some loyal friends in Bolivia who started a counter-insurrection, in which the illegal claimant to

Correspondence, pp. 1116-1117. From his account, the impression is gained that Santa Cruz overthrew Bolívar's model constitution and had the Liberator elected president for life. The fact that Bolívar was president was the main cause of the uprising.

¹⁷ Cristóbal Armero, diplomatic agent of Colombia in Peru, to the secretary of state for foreign affairs of Colombia, January 28, 1827, in *Documentos para la Historia de la Vida pública del Libertador de Colombia, Perú y Bolivia*. . . . (14v., Caracas, 1877), XI. 107. (Hereafter cited as *Documentos del Libertador*.)

¹⁸ Santa Cruz to the Peruvian nation, January 28, 1827, in *Documentos del Libertador*, XI. 108.

¹⁹ Manuel de Vidaurre, minister of foreign relations of Peru, to Sucre, January 29, 1827-1828 [*sic*], in *Documentos del Libertador*, XI. 112.

²⁰ Samuel Larned, United States *chargé d'affaires* in Chile, to Henry Clay, August 10, 1827, in Manning, *Diplomatic Correspondence*, p. 1121.

²¹ Larned to Clay, September 10, 1828, in Manning, *Diplomatic Correspondence*, p. 1131.

²² Sucre to Bolívar, April 27, 1828, in O'Leary, *Sucre*, II. 249.

²³ Larned to Clay, November 19, 1828, in Manning, *Diplomatic Correspondence*, p. 1133.

power was killed.²⁴ Thereupon, the congress reaffirmed its choice of Andrés Santa Cruz, who reached the capital in time to be installed in office on May 20, 1829.²⁵

Bolivia was at this moment sorely in need of a man who could bring order into the war-torn country. Its institutions were in wild confusion. The prevailing governmental chaos offered a real opportunity to a capable administrator. In fact, up to the accession of Santa Cruz, Bolivia can hardly be said to have been really a nation. That it ever became so is largely the result of Santa Cruz's labors at this critical time. So efficient was the new president that in less than two months he was able to write to a friend saying that order had been re-established, and public confidence in the government had been restored.²⁶ The army was reorganized and made the best military force in northern South America; the financial system was revised; a new set of laws was drawn up superseding the old Spanish code; manufactures were stimulated; and education was encouraged. In one short twelvemonth, Santa Cruz had completely suffocated the spirit of rebellion, through a series of laws which punished with death any attempts at sedition in the army, and made delation of culprits a meritorious act.²⁷ At the end of two years, the president was able to announce that Bolivian goods were being made which were quite as satisfactory as imported articles, and that the army was completely equipped with domestic products with the exception of their guns.²⁸

The circumstances under which the idea of the Peru-Bolivian Confederation was first conceived are obscure. Santa

²⁴ Ramón Sotomayor Valdés, *Estudio histórico de Bolivia bajo la Administración del Jeneral D. José María de Achá*, con una Introducción que contiene el Compendio de la Guerra de Independencia i de los Gobiernos de dicha República hasta 1861 (Santiago de Chile, 1874), p. 65.

²⁵ Arguedas, *Los Caudillos letrados*, p. 62.

²⁶ Arguedas, *Los Caudillos letrados*, p. 73.

²⁷ Manuel José Cortés, *Apuntes sobre la Historia de Bolivia* (Sucre, 1861), p. 129.

²⁸ Alcides Arguedas, *Historia general de Bolivia, 1809-1921* (La Paz, 1922), p. 89.

Cruz left nothing to show when or how it developed in his mind. It is probable that in his campaigns in these countries he came to feel the need of some kind of union, and elaborated the plan step by step, until it took the form in which he was finally able to realize it. That he was thinking about it previous to 1829 is shown by the fact that about that date he founded at Titicaca a pseudo-masonic lodge; it was here that he first revealed his plan ultimately to unite Peru and Bolivia.²⁹ In 1829 he was party to a conspiracy of which the object is said to have been the establishment of the confederation. Very little is known about this affair. Santa Cruz, then president of Bolivia, operated through agents in Peru, but kept his person discreetly out of the danger zone. The affair proved abortive, and landed the conspirators in prison.³⁰ In 1830, he was behind a similar attempt, but Peru was not ripe for the scheme, and something—we know not what—interposed again to nullify his plans. Santa Cruz's great interest seems at this time to have been in Peru, which he considered much more important than Bolivia. In his dreams of confederation, Peru was to occupy the higher position. Consequently, it caused no surprise to those who knew Santa Cruz when he caused to be introduced into the Bolivian congress a treaty of commercial alliance with Peru. This document was so grossly unjust to Bolivia, and favored Peru so excessively, that it was rejected on October 29, 1831, by a vote of twenty-nine to sixteen. Needless to say, Santa Cruz was disappointed and considerably angered by this treatment.³¹

Disturbances in Peru resulting from the murder of a gov-

²⁹ Iturrieta, *Bolivia*, I. 776-787; Arguedas, *Los Caudillos letrados*, p. 61. Santa Cruz was careful to give a favorable impression of his ability to the press and to foreigners. La Forest, consul general of France in Chile, in a letter to Prince Polignac, minister of foreign relations of Charles X., dated May 14, 1830, said that Santa Cruz was the absolute owner of Bolivia, where he had founded excellent political institutions, and was the only man who could reunite the two Perus. Quoted in *ibid.*, p. 78.

³⁰ Manuel Ordóñez López and Luís S. Crespo, *Bosquejo de la Historia de Bolivia* (La Paz, Bolivia, 1912), p. 221.

³¹ Arguedas, *Los Caudillos letrados*, pp. 93-99.

ernment official at Ayacucho became so serious that on November 6, 1833, Santa Cruz was authorized to intervene whenever Bolivia's political stability seemed endangered. This was what Santa Cruz had been working for from the beginning of his administration.³² But it was not until the following month that his great opportunity presented itself. At that time, the Peruvian people were preparing for their second presidential election. The incumbent, Agustín Gamarra, a veteran of the wars of independence, was ineligible to succeed himself under the terms of the constitution. He nominated as his candidate Manuel Bermúdez, a colorless individual who, if elected, would be easily controlled by Gamarra. Thus the retiring president would continue in power, although nominally out of office. In opposition to the administration nominee was José Luís Orbegoso. When the latter was elected, Gamarra refused to accept the verdict of the people, and called upon the troops in Callao to support him. He dissolved congress, declared the presidency vacant, and announced Bermúdez as provisional president.³³

The populace showed no enthusiasm for the Gamarra party. Realizing this, Gamarra and his puppet president moved a considerable body of troops out to the plains of Maquinhuyo, determined to administer a decisive defeat to Orbegoso. When the two armies met, Gamarra was stupefied to observe his men walk over to the opposition, lay down their arms, and announce that they would engage in no fratricidal war. The incident has been termed the "Embrace of Maquinhuyo".³⁴ As a result of the wholesale desertion of his troops, Gamarra was obliged to go into exile, and he chose Bolivia as his place of refuge.

During the excitement and confusion of what looked like inevitable civil war, a third general declared himself "jefe supremo", or supreme chief, of Peru. This new aspirant to

³² *Ibid.*, pp. 106-107.

³³ Clements R. Markham, *A History of Peru* (Chicago, 1892), p. 297.

³⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 299.

power was Felipe Santiago de Salaverry, a young man of pleasant personality and considerable military ability.³⁵ Although only twenty-eight at this time (February, 1835), Salaverry had participated in many of the major battles of the wars of independence, had particularly distinguished himself in the important contests of Junín and Ayacucho, and had risen to the rank of general through his courage, daring, and skill.

The insurrection of Salaverry³⁶ gave Santa Cruz the opportunity for which he had been waiting to intervene in Peru. It was clear that if he threw his influence to any one of the candidates, that one could count on success; and the price which Santa Cruz had in mind to ask was Peru's acceptance of the secondary position in the confederation he hoped to establish. Santa Cruz broached his plan to Gamarra, who was then living in Cochabamba.³⁷

Gamarra wished to regain the presidential office, and was not overscrupulous as to how he accomplished this end. In secret consultation with the Bolivian dictator, he agreed, in return for military backing, to give his assent to a treaty of confederation to be negotiated between the two countries.³⁸ What other provisions were contained in the agreement is not known, since Santa Cruz was far too wise a politician to commit to paper matter so dangerous. In accordance with the treaty stipulations, Gamarra was placed in command of four thousand troops; on May 20, 1835, he marched into Cuzco at the head of this Bolivian contingent.

Just at the conclusion of the negotiations with Gamarra, an envoy arrived from Orbegoso, requesting a private con-

³⁵ Salaverry's official dispatch to the minister of war and marine of Peru, dated February 24, 1835, is to be found in Manuel Bilbao, *Historia del Jeneral Salaverry* (Lima, 1853), p. 235, note. (Hereafter cited as Bilbao, *Salaverry*).

³⁶ Bilbao, *Salaverry*, pp. 239-241, gives the full text of Salaverry's proclamation to the people of Peru, dated at Lima, February 25, 1835.

³⁷ Sotomayor Valdés, *Prieto*, II, 53.

³⁸ Arguedas, *Los Caudillos letrados*, pp. 125-126; Sotomayor Valdés, *Prieto*, II, 53, note.

ference with Santa Cruz. This person explained the plight of the Peruvian president, who found himself unable to cope with the powerful forces of Salaverry. Santa Cruz knew Peru, as he had been president of that country. Would he be willing to support the *de jure* government in its struggle for survival, if in return for such action a confederation of Peru and Bolivia were arranged?

Although Santa Cruz had just pledged his word to Gamarra that he would lend assistance to him in a revolt against Orbegoso, he felt no qualms of conscience at disregarding the agreement altogether. After all, Orbegoso was the duly elected president of Peru; if he regained power, whatever he did would be clothed with a legality which neither Gamarra nor Bermúdez could possibly claim. In fact, by an alliance with Orbegoso, Santa Cruz was really putting himself in a far more defensible position than he could hope to occupy in any event as a partner of Gamarra. He, therefore, felt no hesitation in deserting the latter, and characteristically neglected to let Gamarra know of the change.

A treaty was drawn up on June 15, 1835, between Santa Cruz and Orbegoso which gave formal authorization for Bolivian intervention. The expenses of the campaign were to be borne by the latter country, but Santa Cruz undertook to furnish the army with sufficient funds to carry it for three months, pending the final arrangement of financial matters, when the loan was to be repaid by Orbegoso.³⁹

On the day the treaty was signed, and before ratifications were exchanged, the Bolivian army, which had been waiting at the Desaguadero River, marched into Peru. Gamarra, furious when he heard that Santa Cruz had deserted him, immediately declared his allegiance to the cause of Salaverry.⁴⁰ Disobeying the young rebel's orders not to engage Santa Cruz's superior forces by himself, Gamarra was defeated at Yanacocha

³⁹ Cortés, *Apuntes sobre la historia de Bolivia*, p. 136.

⁴⁰ Markham, *Peru*, p. 310; Bilbao, *Salaverry*, p. 300.

on August 13, 1835, and was exiled to Costa Rica.⁴¹ Salaverry was more difficult to subdue, but finally, on February 7, 1836, was crushed at Socabaya. Tried before a military court at Arequipa, condemned to death in violation of a written agreement guaranteeing his life, Salaverry was shot on February 18, 1836.⁴² He perished a victim of Santa Cruz's hatred and fear; because as long as Salaverry lived, the Bolivian dictator knew he would be a potential threat to the confederation.⁴³

The field was thus clear for the organization of the confederacy. The plan adopted presented some curious details. Peru was to be broken into two states, North Peru and South Peru. In its declaration of independence, the state of South Peru declared that it was impossible for the state longer to endure the rule of unitarism, "whence arises its want of prosperity", and it hastened to seize the opportunity "of acquiring for itself future security, by the only means which can possibly contribute to promote it".⁴⁴ Santa Cruz was given temporary authority to exercise control of the state; he accepted only "to bring about the prosperity of the three States as well as that of the Peru-Bolivian Confederation".⁴⁵

The new states were to be mutually independent, with their own presidents and congresses. Bolivia, however, was kept intact. It preserved undisturbed its administrative organization, as laid down in the constitution of 1831, which was an instrument dictated by Santa Cruz. The significant fact is that Santa Cruz retained his post as president of Bolivia, and as such stood on exactly the same level as the presidents of North Peru and South Peru. But as head of the confederacy he occupied a unique position, superior to his associates and

⁴¹ Cortés, *Apuntes sobre la historia de Bolivia*, p. 139.

⁴² Sotomayor Valdés, *Prieto*, II. 70-71; Markham, *Peru*, p. 319. Salaverry's final protest against his execution is printed in full in Bilbao, *Salaverry*, pp. 449-450.

⁴³ Santa Cruz's sentence of death for Salaverry is available in Bilbao, *Salaverry*, Appendix, pp. 14-15

⁴⁴ *British and Foreign State Papers*, XXIV. 772-774.

⁴⁵ *Ibid.*, pp. 774-775.

distinct from himself as president of Bolivia. By the terms of an act passed by the congress at Tapacará, Santa Cruz was accorded whatever powers were necessary to maintain peace and order, as well as to arrange for the final organization of the confederation.⁴⁶ It is difficult to say just what was Santa Cruz's relation to each of the three states constituting the confederation. They each seem to have had at least a theoretical independence in local affairs, but probably the protector exercised supervision over all activities, so much so that the credit for whatever was accomplished in the way of internal improvements in the states may be given to him. In foreign and military matters, Santa Cruz had final authority.

The delegates from Arequipa, Ayacucho, Cuzco, and Puno met in Sicuani in March and established the state of South Peru, which was formally placed under the protection of Santa Cruz.⁴⁷ Huaraz was the scene of the North Peruvian assembly, and there, on August 11, 1836, the new political unit of North Peru was created under the presidency of Orbegoso.⁴⁸ It was composed of the departments of Junín, Libertad, Amazonas, and Lima; and it likewise selected, as its supreme protector, Andrés Santa Cruz, who was rewarded for his efforts in pacifying Peru with honors and a diamond studded sword.⁴⁹

By decree of October 28, 1836, Andrés Santa Cruz proclaimed the existence of the Peruvian-Bolivian Confederation.⁵⁰ Thanks to his truly remarkable administrative ability, Santa Cruz was soon able to substitute system for confusion, and to restore, at least for a time, peace to the three war-torn countries. Law codes were drawn up, and a constitution was

⁴⁶ These powers were specifically granted by Article 3 of the act of June 19, 1836. The text is to be found in Arguedas, *Los Caudillos letrados*, p. 147.

⁴⁷ Sotomayor Valdés, *Prieto*, II. 76; Cortés, *Apuntes sobre la Historia de Bolivia*, pp. 144-145.

⁴⁸ *British and Foreign State Papers*, XXIV. 776-779.

⁴⁹ Santa Cruz's message to the extraordinary congress on its opening session at Cochabamba, May 24, 1838, contains a brief summary of the events from 1831 down to the time of the meeting. *British and Foreign State Papers*, XXVI. 1054.

⁵⁰ *Ibid.*, pp. 779-780.

given to each of the states. After years of strife, a stable government had come once more into existence, organized on the basis of colonial tradition and of personal union under a man who enjoyed almost imperial power.⁵¹

On the whole, the internal history of the Peru-Bolivian Confederation is negligible. Beyond its boundaries, however, there were in operation from its inception forces which were destined ultimately to produce its ruin. This was to be the work of Chile and Argentina, particularly the former. The motive was only in part political. The establishment of the confederation of course disturbed the balance of power in South America and could not be viewed with equanimity by the adjacent republics.⁵² But, in the case of Chile, this sentiment was complicated by the animosities engendered by a prolonged tariff war, the origin of which considerably antedated the establishment of the confederation. For a long time Chile had exchanged its wheat for Peruvian sugar, but about 1831, as a result of a rise in the Peruvian tariff, this lucrative business was virtually extinguished. Chile then advanced its duties. The ill-feeling, which naturally followed, found expression in a policy avowedly opposed to the Peru-Bolivian Confederation. In January, 1835, Peru had negotiated a treaty of amity, commerce, and navigation with Chile. Slightly over a year later, in May, Orbegoso, as provisional president of Peru, annulled the treaty on the grounds that its ratification by Peru was void because effected by Salaverry.⁵³ Chile resented this rather high-handed treatment, and resolved if possible to avenge the "insult".

Reasons for Argentina's opposition to the confederation are not so easily assigned. It is probable that a fear of the

⁵¹ Francisco García Calderón, *Latin America: its Rise and Progress* (London, 1913), p. 125.

⁵² Arguedas, *Los Caudillos letrados*, p. 152, says that Felipe Pardo y Aliaga, former minister of Salaverry in Chile, and an irreconcilable enemy of Santa Cruz, "raised the cry of alarm at the institution of the Confederation".

⁵³ The treaty of 1835 may be found in *British and Foreign State Papers*, XXIII. 742; Orbegoso's nullification is in XXIV. 775-776.

rise in the north of a large and carefully consolidated state was the chief among many motives. Rosas declared, in a message to the congress of the Province of Buenos Aires that the cause for war was the

imperious duty of self-defence . . . and the Argentine Confederation is assured that it will not forfeit the support of civilized Europe's verdict by opposing an armed colossus, who . . . has dared to write with his sword the decree by which he subjects to his will the destinies of Peru and Bolivia.⁵⁴

Diego Portales, who was at this time the dominant figure in Chilean politics, looked upon the confederation as a menace to the equilibrium of South America. Santa Cruz, however, was not thinking of further expansion at the moment. The task of restoring Peru to something resembling peace and order was sufficient to monopolize his energies. But at this juncture an incident occurred which seemed to justify Portales's worst suspicions. This grew out of the activities of Ramón Freire, a political rival of President Joaquín Prieto of Chile, who was at this time a resident of Peru. This general had been exiled from his native country as a result of a revolt against Prieto, but he had not given up his ambition to be president of that state. Fitting out two ships, the *Monteagudo* and the *Orbegoso*, Freire, under cover of darkness, slipped out of the harbor of Callao on July 7, 1836, sailing for Chiloe, whence he hoped to attack Valparaíso.⁵⁵ Through a fortunate combination of circumstances, Portales was able to capture Freire before he had accomplished anything of importance. By putting all the evidence together, Portales concluded that Santa Cruz had subsidized Freire, and that this expedition

⁵⁴ *British and Foreign State Papers*, XXVII. 856-857.

⁵⁵ Whether Santa Cruz was really implicated in the Freire conspiracy cannot be stated definitely. In 1860, however, he wrote a letter in which he seemed to imply that he knew more of what had occurred than he admitted in 1836. He said, "My only fault was not having ordered Orbegoso and his accomplices to be tried" (quoted in Benjamín Vicuña Mackenna, *La Diego Portales*, Valparaíso, Chile, 1863), II. 84, note.

was merely the forerunner of a Bolivian invasion.⁵⁶ There seemed to be only one thing to do, and that was to attack Santa Cruz before that dictator was ready to defend himself.

Realizing that a contest with Peru would be largely a matter of naval forces, Portales conceived a bold idea, but one which was sure to lead to war. In the harbor of Valparaiso lay four ships of the Chilean fleet, under the command of Victoriano Garrido, a Spaniard in Chilean service. This detachment was ordered to proceed immediately to Callao, to seize all vessels belonging to the navy of Peru. This would, of course, leave Peru more or less at the mercy of the Chilean maritime forces, and would give Chile the upper hand in any war which might come about. It was a daring plan, but it was more worthy of a pirate chieftain than of a minister of a civilized power.⁵⁷

Garrido acted without delay, and on August 21, 1836, took possession of four ships lying unarmed and relatively unmanned in the peaceful waters of Callao. The next morning he transmitted a description of what had occurred to Santa Cruz, who was in Lima, in which he stated that Chile had been forced to take this action because of the "inexplicable conduct of the Peruvian government".⁵⁸ The protector was so enraged at the news that he ordered the arrest of Ventura Lavalle, the Chilean consul-general in Lima. This was a diplomatic *faux pas*. It gave Portales one more cause for offense. A few hours later, Santa Cruz realized the error into which his anger had betrayed him. Lavalle was released, and a letter of apology and denial of complicity in the Freire affair was dispatched to Portales. The confederation was not prepared for war, and Santa Cruz was only too happy to accept the British *chargé d'affaires's* tender of his offices to settle the dispute. A treaty was worked out aboard H. B. M. S. *Talbot*, at that juncture anchored in Callao harbor. The terms were rea-

⁵⁶ Sotomayor Valdés, *Prieto*, II, 142-145.

⁵⁷ Markham, *Peru*, pp. 325-326.

⁵⁸ Agustín Edwards, *The Dawn* (London, 1931), p. 319.

sonable: Garrido was to leave within ten days; the ships were to remain in Chile's possession until a definite arrangement concerning them was made.⁵⁹

Portales declined to be bound by this document. He was opposed to everything which had to do with the confederation. He worked for war, and on October 10, 1836, the Chilean congress authorized Prieto to declare war against Peru and Bolivia. A month passed before the president issued, on November 11, 1836, the announcement of hostilities, but for some reason his course required a further endorsement by the Chilean congress, and since this was deferred to the following Christmas eve, the state of war did not officially exist until that date. In fact, Portales's actions in demanding war early in October were somewhat premature, as the confederation did not come into legal existence until October 28, 1836. The constitution of the new union was not promulgated until May 1, 1837.⁶⁰ Nevertheless, the union had been a *fait accompli* for seven months, and the formal announcement of its existence had little, if any, real significance except to the academicians and the lawyers.

Argentina was not so patient as Chile. The announcement to the world that the two conventions had met and approved the idea of confederation was sufficient ground for Argentina to sever diplomatic relations with the associated powers.⁶¹ On April 10, 1837, the confederation declared an absolute interdict against the Argentine people, but a state of war was not formally pronounced until May. An Argentine army invaded the province of Tarija, but was soon defeated. Santa Cruz, in his message to the congress at Cochabamba, on May 24, 1838, said that

⁵⁹ The full text of the treaty is to be found in *British and Foreign State Papers*, XXVI. 1083-1086.

⁶⁰ The complete text of the treaty signed by representatives of the three states is located in *British and Foreign State Papers*, XXVII. 1360-1368. Santa Cruz did not sign the document.

⁶¹ The decree closing communication between the two countries was promulgated on February 13, 1837. *British and Foreign State Papers*, XXVII. 869.

some chiefs of the Argentine Provinces, who have not yet abandoned the chimerical idea of subduing Bolivia, lent themselves easily to the immoral suggestions of the Chilean Cabinet, and . . . menaced the sacred territory of the country. Their presence served to inflame patriotism, and to arm en masse our States of the South. The glorious results of the campaign have just been published.⁶²

Santa Cruz had several months which might have been employed to prepare his confederation for war. No overt act was committed until after the first half of the year had passed. During this time, however, he had little leisure to spare from the domestic affairs of the confederation, but did manage to arrange a treaty of amity, commerce, and navigation with Great Britain. This was signed at Lima on June 5, 1837.⁶³

Portales's war was not popular in Chile, but he forced the people to support it by a series of tyrannical decrees. These caused so much resentment that a conspiracy was organized by certain officers of the army under the leadership of Colonel Vidaurre, a former intimate friend of the minister. On June 3, 1837, after an inspection of the troops in training at Quillota, Portales was taken prisoner by some of Vidaurre's subordinates. On the evening of June 6, the minister was killed by the mutineers, who then plundered and mutilated his body horribly.⁶⁴

The murder of Portales, however, had no effect upon the preparations for the war, which went on as though nothing had happened. In September, Chilean forces, under Admiral Manuel Blanco Encalada, sailed for Peru. Although the commander had the reputation of being a good seaman, he turned out to be incapable of handling troops on land. He was, consequently, surrounded at Paucarpata on November 15, 1837, and forced to surrender without firing a shot.⁶⁵ Miles from aid of any sort, he obtained a treaty which, considering the

⁶² *British and Foreign State Papers*, XXVI. 1057.

⁶³ The complete text of the treaty is accessible in *British and Foreign State Papers*, XXVI. 1202-1217.

⁶⁴ Sotomayor Valdés, *Prieto*, II. 471.

⁶⁵ Cortés, *Apuntes para la historia de Bolivia*, pp. 151-152.

circumstances, was remarkably lenient. The ships seized by Garrido were to be given back to Peru, in return for the payment to that nation of certain debts owed it by Peru. He accepted a further provision that the Chilean government would under no circumstances intervene in the domestic affairs of the confederation.⁶⁶ The agreement was solemnly ratified by Santa Cruz on November 17, 1837. Chile, however, refused to accept the treaty, on the grounds that Blanco Encalada had no powers to act as a plenipotentiary.

Although the war continued, Santa Cruz gained by this victory a truce for nearly a year. During this time he made some preparations for the new attack, but was of course primarily concerned with affairs of the civil government. In August, 1838, a second Chilean force landed in Peru, under the command of Manuel Bulnes. By lucky chance, Santa Cruz was able to surround Bulnes, but for some unknown reason did not press his advantage, and allowed the entire enemy army to retire in orderly fashion. It was a tragic mistake, since on January 20, 1837, these same troops met and disastrously defeated the armies of the confederation at Yungay. Santa Cruz declared that of the 4,052 men in his army on that day, of whom 1,521 were Bolivians, over one-third fled, and were later found assembled in the valley of Tarma, apparently in good condition.⁶⁷

Santa Cruz fled from the battlefield leaving behind everything, including his personal correspondence. He took refuge on an English man-of-war, H. B. M. S. *Samarang*, then lying off the coast of Peru. It was from the deck of this ship that he issued on February 20 his last decree, by which he dissolved the confederation.⁶⁸ He then went into voluntary exile, stop-

⁶⁶ The complete text of the treaty is available in *British and Foreign State Papers*, XXV. 637-641.

⁶⁷ Santa Cruz to the Congress of Bolivia, March 12, 1839, in *British and Foreign State Papers*, XXVII. 1377.

⁶⁸ This decree is dated from Arequipa, and may be found in *British and Foreign State Papers*, XXVII. 1371-1372. Santa Cruz's resignations from the presidency of Bolivia, and from the protectorate of the confederation, both written in Arequipa on February 20, 1839, are in *ibid.*, XXVII. 1370-1371.

ping first at Guayaquil, whence he issued his message to the congress of Bolivia, in which he attempts to explain his motives and the causes of his defeat.⁶⁹ He proceeded eventually to Europe, where he represented Bolivia as minister at the court of Belgium and at the Vatican. In 1865, at the age of seventy-three, the veteran warrior died peacefully at Sainte-Nazaire, France.

The Peru-Bolivian Confederation was erected upon a foundation of deceit and treachery. It is perhaps asking too much to have had it otherwise. Santa Cruz was, after all, fundamentally Indian, and he had the defects as well as the virtues of his ancestry. At the very beginning of his enterprise, he alienated some of the ablest men in Peru. They co-operated with him only until the opportunity presented itself to undo the union. Santa Cruz's power depended upon success; immediately after Yungay, Santa Cruz was informed that revolution had broken out in every Bolivian department, and that his absence from his native land was imperative if civil war were to be avoided.⁷⁰ It was a mistake to subordinate Peru to Bolivia. That arrangement made the collapse of the alliance a certainty as soon as Peru wearied of its secondary rôle. The collapse was precipitated through the defection of Orbegoso when the Chilean forces under Bulnes set foot in Peru. To place one nation over another is always to invite trouble, particularly in Hispanic America. An attempt to obliterate a Hispanic American nationality was the rock upon which Santa Cruz's otherwise statesmanlike project foundered.

Since the collapse of the Peru-Bolivian Confederation there have been no more such unions in South America. Although advocated by many leading South American thinkers, such projects have always failed, largely because Hispanic pride and Hispanic individualism demand for themselves complete independence or else complete subordination. The three greatest attempts at confederation in Hispanic Amer-

⁶⁹ *British and Foreign State Papers*, XXVII. 1375-1380.

⁷⁰ *Ibid.*, p. 1377.

ican history have all centered around personal loyalty to one man, and collapsed when some misstep on his part caused the fickle populace to change, and thus open the way for a new leader to come into power. But coöperation of one Hispanic nation with another is not necessarily impossible, merely because the character of the people makes it difficult. If vague projects of confederation are forming today in the minds of the leaders of Hispanic America, there is a chance that the pattern devised by Santa Cruz will be resurrected. Perhaps a time may come when the Bolivian president will be heralded as the forerunner of a new and greater Hispanic America.

LANE CARTER KENDALL.

Berkeley, California.

BOOK REVIEWS

La Encomienda Indiana. By SILVIO ZAVALA. (Madrid: Centro de Estudios Históricos, 1935. Pp. ii, 356. 15 pesetas.)

La Encomienda Indiana is the legal history of that remarkable institution from its beginning in Santo Domingo to its extinction in the eighteenth century. Unfortunately, this legalistic approach is the only one available and the necessary result has been to give us another account of the rise and decline of the encomienda, although it is considerably wider and more complete than my own study in the same field. The author has, therefore, unavoidably paralleled my work up to the point where I left off, about 1550, but he also brings in material from Peru in an attempt to make a more universal picture.

The part of Sr. Zavala's work that I read with great interest is his continuation of the history of the encomienda through the reforms of Philip II. (1573) which reduced the remnants of the conquistadores to the status of pensioners, although they still had some responsibility toward their Indian charges. The gradual shearing away of the privileges of the encomendero stems from the policy of Ferdinand and Isabella in their struggle to reduce the nobles of Spain, a policy ably carried on by Charles V. against the comuneros and in his long and successful effort to circumvent the aspirations of the conquistadores of America, the chief and most turbulent of whom were the encomenderos.

The great crisis in the history of the encomienda was the promulgation of the New Laws in 1544, so drastic that they came exceedingly close to destroying Spanish America. Their speedy modification saved a bad situation, but left the encomenderos shorn of the bulk of their privileges. The ordinances of Philip II. completed the work of destruction (a needed destruction, since the encomienda was an anachronism in the highly centralized Hapsburg autocracy), and the encomienda lost its significance as an economic factor in the life of the colonies. That factor, as I have pointed out elsewhere, was its function of getting work done. When the privilege of using the Indians in personal service was removed from the encomienda (save in so far

as the encomendero could use the Indians on the same legal footing as other Spaniards), the encomienda became a pension system and we properly hear little more about it. Such being the case, I find it hard to justify the two hundred pages which Sr. Zavala devotes to this latter phase and which are concerned with an interminable discussion of the *perpetuidad*, the rights of succession, the distribution of the tribute and windy opinions of contemporary legal and ecclesiastical critics. I submit that the book would be more effective if this matter had been condensed—especially since we have the excellent reprint of the monumental work of Solorzano to consult.

Zavala's work is complete—even more than complete—as a legal study of the encomienda. What is needed and what, I venture to predict, will never be written, is an economic and social study of that institution from the bottom up. My pessimism arises from the conviction that no encomendero kept records during those insolent days when the encomienda made every conquistador a prince in his own right.

There are few errors of note in the book. It is unfortunate that Sr. Zavala did not use one of the two texts of the important Laws of Burgos (*Hispanic American* for August, 1932, and *Ibero-Americana*, No. 7, 1934) instead of the faulty and incomplete version of Las Casas. The delegates sent to Spain from Mexico to lobby against the New Laws in 1545 (p. 107) included Jerónimo López, not *Gonzalo*. The same man appears on the next page as *Gregorio*. These, however, are unimportant and infrequent flaws in a carefully compiled and scholarly work. A full bibliography is appended, but no index.

LESLEY BYRD SIMPSON.

University of California,
Berkeley.

Guide to the History of Mexico. A Modern Interpretation. By ALFONSO TEJA ZABRE. (Mexico: Press of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 1935. Pp. xii, 375. Maps. Illus.)

The author of this work feels that the history of Mexico should be rewritten in the light of modern material advancement and especially in the light of inventions and social movements. He states his view of Mexican history in two sentences: "Mexico's independence is not merely a political crisis and an economic struggle to eliminate the

Spaniard (from the church and from the state) in order to put the creole in his place. It is the process of disintegration or decline of the Spanish Empire, submitted to multiple pressure from outer cultures overflowing with expansive energy, to inner wearing down from effort made, and above all to the work of adaptation involved by the influence of land on man and vice versa."

After a brief, thought-provoking introduction in which the previous treatment of Mexican history at the hands of historians is criticized, the author gives a synopsis of nine factors in Mexican history: the geographic, the climatic, the ethnic, the economic, the ideological, the individual, the language, the architecture, and the scientific and artistic. This is followed by a tabulated "Chronological Summary" of Mexican history by years.

The chief body of the text consists of four parts: Part I, "Primitive Mexican Culture", which details by sections in numbered paragraphs the history of the country from the earliest times through the conquest by Cortés; Part II, "The Colonial Period", which considers three stages (Expansion of Spanish Power, Height of Its Splendor, and Its Decline); Part III, "Independent Mexico", which covers the period from the last days of the viceroys through the revolutions for independence and the period of national integration to the beginning of the Díaz régime; and Part IV, "The Revolution", which deals with the Age of Díaz and the Aftermath of the Revolution and Peace.

The book, as its title implies, is a guide in which the author has told the story of Mexican history simply, clearly, and refreshingly—no words are wasted and the picture is clarified by numerous maps and many illustrations. He has emphasized the technological influence as a prime factor in Mexican history, and he has shown himself to be a member of the school of "Revolutionary Futurism" which has arisen in Mexico since 1921 and which includes among its exponents many of Mexico's younger literary men, historians, and artists. Because of the author's broad treatment and his philosophical approach, the book will be found of great value to students, not only of Mexican history but of Hispanic American history as a whole. The bibliography covers twelve pages, and the index constitutes an analytical table of contents.

A. CURTIS WILGUS.

The George Washington University.

Monumentos Arqueológicos de México. (Mexico City: 1933. Pp. 158.)

Pintura Mexicana, 1800-1860. (Mexico City: 1933. Pp. 19. 67 plates.)

The *Secretaría de Educación Pública* of Mexico has sponsored two more collections of pictures relating to its art and culture, one a group of one hundred and fifty full-page reproductions of the republic's many national monuments, and the other some sixty-seven plates representing native painting. The first of the two works under review is similar in general plan and attractiveness to the *Tres Siglos de Arquitectura Colonial* reviewed in the May, 1934, number of THE HISPANIC AMERICAN HISTORICAL REVIEW (pp. 228-229) and logically precedes it. The immense wealth of archeological remains of pre-Hispanic civilizations which Mexico possesses is a matter of common knowledge, yet the extent and variety of these ruins are less familiar. On an archeological map which has been drawn of Mexico, some 1,500 different sites of ancient monuments are indicated to date, and doubtless still others will come to light in the course of time. The selection of photographs adequately represents the more important of these archeological treasures and their geographical distribution: pyramids, temples, ornamented columns, together with many sculptural and architectural details, all creations of past civilizations, the Olmec, Toltec, Maya, Aztec, Mixtec and Zapotec, pass in review in the succession of photographic reproductions, each with an appropriate label and brief explanation in Spanish and English. Numerically, the well known ruins of Chichen-Itzá in Yucatan are best represented but others more or less familiar to the tourist and casual student are included. Especially interesting are the glimpses afforded of the recently discovered tombs at Monte Alban in the State of Oaxaca and the cleverly wrought jewelry found in them. So excellent is the selection of subjects forming this collection of pictures that it will be regretted that only soft-tone reproductions were made, for, especially in depicting the intricate designs and sculptural details of small sections of the ancient structures, the sharpness and clearness that characterizes the pictures of *The National Geographic Magazine* published in Washington, D. C., for instance, will be missed.

The second publication of the *Secretaría de Educación Pública* under review entitled *Pintura Mexicana, 1800-1860*, affords an excel-

lent idea of the trend in native painting in the chaotic period of the closing days of Spanish rule and the first of the republican era—years which have been neglected in the study of the history of Mexican art. Outside influences had practically no effect on the few artists who plied their brushes nor did they penetrate the confusion of social and political change; the painters themselves worked for the most part intuitively and without any conscious ideology. Nearly all the pictures represented in this collection are portraits of men, women, and children, and the majority were painted by José María Estrada, a portrait-maker of Guadalajara who flourished from 1830 to 1860, though examples of the art of other and unknown painters are numerous. These reproductions, including some pictures of a later date than that indicated in the title, are preceded by a brief introduction both in Spanish and English (though the latter version suffers from numerous infelicities of diction) by Roberto Montenegro in whose private collection many of the original paintings exist. Of the plates in this book there is no legitimate complaint. Sixty-two of them are in black and white, sharp and clear, while the remaining five are in natural colors. These reproductions taken as a whole offer an interesting contribution to the history of the evolution of native Mexican art which, in its recent manifestations, is now attracting such wide attention.

IRVING A. LEONARD.

University of California,
Berkeley.

Chasing Villa. The Story Behind the Story of Pershing's Expedition into Mexico. By COL. FRANK TOMPKINS. (Harrisburg, Pa.: The Military Service Publishing Company, 1934. Pp. xx, 270.)

Although there is no such division of this book made by the author, yet the reviewer, for the purpose of discussion, must divide it into two parts, which might be called respectively, "The Political Situation" and "The Military Campaign", for these two parts are as distinctly different in style as well as in subject matter, as if they were separate books. The first six chapters are devoted exclusively to the political situation, which is returned to again in Chapter XXXI ("Behind the Scenes with the Politicians") and in Chapter XXXIV ("The Evacuation of Mexico. An Inglorious Ending").

In this part the writer, although he claims to be an historian,

shows a political bias not at all in accord with historical impartiality. "In this history", says the author in his introduction,

I shall endeavor to present a truthful picture, though it may contain unpleasant revelations of our political relations with Mexico from the fall of Díaz in May, 1911, to the Columbus Raid in March, 1916,

and then proceeds to paint as unpleasant a picture as possible, apparently basing his ideas almost entirely on the reports of Ambassador Henry Lane Wilson, whom few historians would consider an impartial witness, and on the chatter of Mrs. O'Shaughnessy, whom the author quotes without giving foot-note references to pages.

Furthermore, no historian can attempt to predict what would have happened, had events been different from what they actually were, yet the author on page 111 says:

What we needed in the White House was a Cleveland, a Roosevelt, or a Coolidge. Had we had such a President there would have been no Columbus Raid, there would have been no need for a Mexican Punitive Expedition, because the Mexicans would have held the United States in respect instead of contempt.

In numerous passages elsewhere throughout the book, it is made evident that the author had no use for President Wilson's Mexican policy.

An officer in the field with troops pursuing bandits in a foreign country, who was restricted by orders not to bring on a conflict with the national troops of that country, who were supposed to be his allies, cannot be blamed for feeling bitterly, when those national troops, instead of cooperating with him, threw every obstacle in his way, even to the extent of firing upon him. He cannot be blamed for resenting orders from Washington which made it impossible for him to carry out the duties which he had been directed to perform, or even to take measures for protecting the lives of his men; yet in after years, when he takes up the rôle of historian, he lessens the value of his work by allowing that bitterness (perhaps now tinged with political partisanship) to color his narration of events.

However, in mitigation of his frequent strictures on Mexico and the Mexicans, Colonel Tompkins in his introduction declares:

The reader must not confuse anything recorded in this book with Mexico of the present day. This narrative deals with the Mexico of 1916 and before. During the last decade Mexico has developed into a country very different from the Mexico of the time of which I write.

The remainder of the book, in fact the larger part of it, comprising those chapters which deal with the raid on Columbus, New Mexico, and with the operations against Villa by the various brigades composing Pershing's Punitive Expedition, is good history, or at least good source material for history, since it is based entirely upon the author's personal experiences and the official reports of the several organization commanders.

In an official report to a military superior, definite statements of dates, hours, numbers of men, and distances marched are essential; but these make dry reading. In quoting a report verbatim, such arid factual information must necessarily be included, but in paraphrasing such reports or in compiling a narrative from them, the author could have made a more interesting account, had he omitted much which he has included. Even to a military reader, times and distances are not essential unless he is making a detailed study of a campaign. To a civilian, such figures are annoying and fail to convey any additional clearness to the picture. Had the author written the account of the campaign in Mexico as interestingly as he did the chapter on the Columbus raid, he would have produced a more generally acceptable book. There must have been plenty of exciting incidents during the long, weary marches and especially during the encounters with the Carranzista forces at Parral and Carrizal. On the other hand, the fight at Tomochic is vividly described and is made clear by a well-drawn sketch map.

Although one, who has been through a military campaign, may read between the lines and visualize the hardships experienced by both men and horses in a march covering a thousand miles over mountains and deserts, the tortures suffered from dust storms and blizzards, from torrid days and zero nights, and the stolid endurance of continual thirst and hunger, the average civilian gets a rather sketchy picture from frequent repetitions of the bare statement of these facts. In truth the book is dull reading and requires undue concentration.

To follow and understand the movements of the several columns as described, requires constant reference to the maps on the inside of the front and back covers. Without these maps the book would be valueless, yet, unfortunately, the maps are of such small scale and so encumbered with unnecessary data as to times of arrival and departure, that the reader is often tempted to give up in despair rather

than strain his eyes trying to decipher the minute types. He is, moreover, frequently irritated by failing to find the name of a place mentioned in the text, or by finding on the map a name similar to, but not exactly like that in the text. For a military reader, the inclusion of contour lines would have helped in locating the camping places in the mountains. It is also suggested that a map of double this scale, printed half on the inside of the front cover and half on the inside of the back cover, would have been an improvement over the duplication of the same small-scale map.

In addition to this map there are five larger scale sketch maps and thirty-two interesting illustrations reproduced from photographs. The book contains also a short biography of the author, a Foreword by Major General J. G. Harbord, and four appendices covering "Cavalry lessons taught by the campaign", written by the author; "Report of Operations of the First Aero Squadron, Signal Corps", by Capt. Benjamin D. Fulois; "Motor Transport Experiences with the Expedition", by Capt. Francis H. Pope, and a "Roster of Commissioned Personnel, of the U. S. Army who served with the Expedition".

Colonel Tompkins has well accomplished two of his objectives. To the average civilian who might believe that Pershing's Expedition was unsuccessful because it did not capture Villa, he has shown that the expedition was successful in its objective, for, in accordance with instructions received by General Pershing, that objective "was limited to . . . the pursuit and dispersion of the band or bands that attacked Columbus, N. M." The author has certainly left no doubt that these bands were most effectively pursued and dispersed. For the young officer, Colonel Tompkins has depicted a splendid example of how the officers and men of the cavalry of the "Old Army" knew their business and did it thoroughly with unsurpassed energy and loyalty. In the advertising circular this book is rightly called "An Epic of the American Cavalry". As a text for study by cavalry officers this book should prove useful, and as a monograph upon which to base an historical account, it has considerable value.

ALFRED HASBROUCK.

Washington, Connecticut.

Renascent Mexico. Edited by HUBERT HERRING and HERBERT WEINSTOCK. Introduction by ERNEST GRUENING. (New York: Covici-Friede, 1935. Pp. x, 322. Index.)

In this set of essays there is a presumption on the part of the authors that the reader is familiar with the general conditions immediately south of the Río Grande. Hence they make no effort to provide a general background or setting. Throughout there is a distinct emphasis on cultural development with the introduction by Mr. Gruening appropriately emphasizing the Indian element in the population. This is followed by one of the most refreshing chapters of the book by Sr. Luis Cabrera in which geographical and racial difficulties are frankly considered.

Professor Borchard, with a determined optimism, comments on the general progress and satisfactory international relations of the Americas, refusing to see imperialism in the course of the United States but only occasional "ephemeral distortions" or "ebullient remarks" that "were mainly verbal or tactical errors which never in practice deleteriously affected Latin America". Under the title of "Learning to Think Internationally", Mr. E. C. Lindeman provides the philosophical and sympathetic impressions of a member of the seminar group in Mexico who is just seeing the country for the first time. A third international study is that of Professor Stanley Rypins who contrasts the Russian and Mexican Revolutions. This is something less than convincing when it characterizes the land program as "mildly confiscatory" after it has already pointed out that the actual value received by the old landlords was about eleven per cent of the value of the lands taken from them. Also there are those who would question the impression that there is little communistic propaganda consciously employed.

Sr. Ramón Bateta presents the conservative interpretation of the Six Year Plan which is then quite pertinently criticised by Professor C. L. Jones who is not antagonistic to the Plan but definitely inquisitive in regard to it. In turn, Sr. Espinosa de los Monteros surveys Mexican banking history and shows the present day accomplishments coupled with the need for banks to finance long term loans.

The rest of the volume, nearly two-thirds of the whole, is devoted to cultural development. Professor Robert Redfield discusses the disappearance of the old folk customs; Miss Toor describes the folk dances

and Mr. René D'Harnancourt presents the Mexican *fiesta* that is still spontaneous and uncommercialized. For the still earlier period, Mr. H. J. Spinden lists the chief archeological sites of Mexico today; Sr. Carlos Chávez surveys pre-Cortezian music and finds it of great importance and significance as a background for later development; while Sr. Diego Rivera summarizes the plastic art development before the conquest.

Three articles fall under the head of education and literary development. Sr. Rafael Ramírez outlines the gigantic plan of mass education now being launched. The macabre humor and driving force of the novel of the Revolution appear in the summary of Sra. Gamboa de Camino, while Miss Wallace is interested in the promise and strength of five of the young Mexican poets of today.

Sr. Moisés Saenz, speaking from a lifetime of work, presents a forceful plea for less of archeology, ethnology, and anthropology, except as aids to sociology in a practical approach to the three million or more of sturdy, simple, gentle, and courteous Indians who need a helping hand.

Mr. Hubert Herring who has done so much to bring about a sympathetic approach to Hispanic American relations appropriately closes the volume with a plea for the facing of facts as he lists ten fundamental elements in United States contacts with them.

On the whole, the volume is written by a group of outspoken admirers of the southern neighbor of the United States. However, unbiased and complete information, such as a seminar aspires to, is hardly to be found here. For instance there is little comment on the economic conditions which are so fundamental a part of the renaissance of Mexico. Likewise, politics are completely eschewed and there is a conspicuous lack of comment on the work of sanitation and the heroic efforts of medical men whose needs are so great. Thus, the complete picture which the title indicates is lacking, but as a valuable contribution it is joyously welcomed and the present reviewer sincerely hopes that it will be followed by other volumes that will still further broaden the important work being done by the annual Seminar in Mexico.

W. H. CALLCOTT.

Durham, N. C.

Tempest Over Mexico. A Personal Chronicle. By ROSA E. KING.
(Boston: Little, Brown, and Co., 1935. Pp. xii, 319. Illustrations.
\$3.00.)

Here is a set of memoirs by an English lady, who went to the resort city of Cuernavaca in Morelos in 1905. After the death of her husband she opened a tea room and curio shop and so prospered that by 1910 she had purchased a tourist hotel and catered to the Mexican leaders of the day who frequently resorted to the beautiful southern city.

Soon there came on the horrors of the revolution which Mrs. King clearly shows to have been a clash between the fundamental rights of man and intolerable exploitation by a class themselves most attractive as friends and acquaintances. The leader of the south, Zapata, is frankly ranked only after Hidalgo and Juárez in the social emancipation of Mexico. His personal foibles are not mentioned but the significance of his movement is constantly emphasized. By contrast, Huerta is shown as a lonely great leader, with glaring weaknesses that were his own undoing.

There is no effort to portray the causes behind the political moves of the day. In fact, all politics are so carefully avoided that even the famous last trip of Madero to Cuernavaca is left with a queerly inadequate explanation. The high point of the narrative is the two chapters devoted to the siege of the southern city and the three covering its evacuation and the tragic journey of the people to Toluca. This account is stark and so unreal as to leave the reader almost skeptical were it not for a force and detail and a local description that bear the stamp of fact. Throughout, the author's theme is: "The Zapatistas were not an army; they were a people in arms". Though the immediate results were ruin, death, and destruction, the writer firmly believes the revolution justified and that "strong nations the world over have been built on the ruins of a just revolt".

Now, thirty years later, the author, broken in health and with property gone, has retired to live in her beloved Cuernavaca, sincerely loving the humble and the great of her adopted country.

In short: A book of memoirs by a competent observer; and withal one that is intensely interesting both to layman and scholar.

W. H. CALLCOTT.

Durham, N. C.

Joel R. Poinsett, Versatile American. By J. FRED RIPPY. (Durham, N. C.: Duke University Press, 1935. Pp. xii, 257. Illus. Index. \$3.00.)

Joel Poinsett is one of the statesmen of the first half of the nineteenth century of whom the general reader and even the historian knows all too little. Whence the present scholarly biography is a distinct contribution to the history of the United States and of Hispanic America of that period. In the preface, the author asserts that Poinsett "traveled more widely and read more industriously than almost any American of his day. . . . His thinking was never provincial." This book goes far to establish these two theses. Partly because of his modesty, Poinsett was not prominently in the public eye, even when occupying important public offices. This was owing also to some extent to the fact that much of his public service was in foreign lands, hence unknown to the general public. Because of the fact that his few publications appealed to the savant and the specialist, rather than to "the man in the street," Poinsett was soon forgotten by the masses. Then, too, in the last two decades of his life, Poinsett, an ardent nationalist, was in vigorous opposition to the majority party in his own state. Having opposed the popular side of the question then engrossing the public attention, he could but expect that his victorious opponents would do nothing to keep his memory alive.

Born of good Huguenot and English stock, in Charleston, South Carolina, in 1779, Joel Roberts Poinsett soon displayed a taste for military life that was destined never to be gratified. His father, Dr. Elisha Poinsett, naturally wanted his only surviving son to follow his own profession. So after preliminary studies in Charleston, Greenfield Hill, Connecticut, and England, Poinsett entered the University of Edinburgh at the age of eighteen. Not of a robust constitution, he found one year of Scottish weather and arduous application to his studies, too much. When his health broke down, his physician prescribed a voyage to Portugal. The effect of several weeks in that country—and possibly Spain—during the Napoleonic wars was not only to restore his health, but to stimulate his desire for the life of a soldier. Returning to Britain, he in vain sought to enter the Royal Military Academy at Woolwich. Failing in that, he put himself under the tuition of one Marbois, former professor at the Royal Military Academy. Returning to Charleston, he found his father set against the career of arms, save in time of war. So Poinsett allowed himself

to be persuaded into the study of law. One year sufficed to convince him that he was never intended to be a jurist.

With his father's consent, he abandoned the law in 1801 and set out for an extended tour of Europe. France, Switzerland, Italy, Austria, Germany, and the Netherlands, were all visited for longer or shorter periods. Nor was it the superficial visit of a mere tourist. His diaries show that he observed the life about him with understanding and sympathy. One effect of his travels was to make him a more ardent American. Recalled to the United States by the death of his father, he remained with his only surviving relative until her death in 1804, when he made a tour of the eastern United States and Canada. This was the first of several trips in his own country, as later he visited the states of the Mississippi Valley, as well as New England. He went by way of Sweden and Finland to Russia, in 1806, where he was cordially received at the court of Alexander I. After a tour of Southeastern Russia and the Transcaucasian regions, he declined a commission in the Russian army and returned to America.

He sought in vain a commission in the United States army. Instead, President Madison sent Poinsett to observe events and conditions in South America (1810). After a few weeks in Brazil, incognito, Poinsett spent several months in Argentina. The British agents in that land regarded him with suspicion and opposed his efforts to secure a commercial treaty with the revolutionary government. Hence though he bettered commercial relations between Argentina and the United States somewhat, he accomplished much less than he had hoped. Crossing the Andes to Chile he met a more favorable reception and took an active part in the counsels of the revolutionary leaders, political and military. When he returned to the United States in 1815 he found himself the unofficial consultant of the administration on South American affairs. From 1816 to 1820, he served in the lower house of the South Carolina legislature, part of the time discharging efficiently, also, the duties of president of the board of public works of the state. Elected to congress in 1820, he was reëlected in 1822 and 1824.

During the summer of 1822, he made a semi-official visit to Mexico, to observe and report on conditions there. Proceeding to Mexico City by the usual route from Vera Cruz, he returned to the coast by a wide circuit to the north and east, observing closely the life of the people, and the political and religious currents of the land. As a result of

this visit he advised President Monroe against recognition of the government of Emperor Iturbide. This advice was followed. It was entirely natural that in 1825 he should have been appointed minister to the Mexican Republic, with instructions to negotiate a commercial treaty, and settle various boundary questions and other causes of friction. Owing largely to the effective machinations of the British minister, Poinsett's four and a half years in Mexico were unsatisfactory to him and to his government. However, he brought back the plant which perpetuates his name—the *poinsettia pulcherrima*.

A strong nationalist, though opposed to protective tariffs, Poinsett was one of the leaders in the opposition to the nullification movement in South Carolina from 1830 on. President Jackson considered Poinsett his main dependence in the state during this crisis. Poinsett's stand made him unpopular with all but the ardent unionists, and he wisely declined to run for congress again. But his unionist admirers nominated and elected him to the state senate in 1836. He served but a short time in this body, as President Van Buren appointed him secretary of war in 1837—a choice which was approved by the press of all factions.

Of the secretaries of war from 1789 to 1861, only three were really notable, John C. Calhoun, Jefferson Davis, and Joel R. Poinsett. Of these it is probable that Davis was the ablest. Professor Rippey shows clearly the valuable services Poinsett rendered in this department, not only in military matters, but in his handling of the Indians, frontier defense, domestic engineering problems, and the like. The reforms Poinsett instituted in the staff and artillery bore good fruit during the Mexican War.

Intensely interested in science, art, and philosophy, Poinsett was active in the promotion of all movements along such lines, both in the national capital and in South Carolina. After his retirement from the cabinet, he divided his time largely between his wife's plantation, near Georgetown, and his own farm near Greenville. At the former he entertained such distinguished visitors as Frederika Bremer and Martin Van Buren. Poinsett died at Stateburg, Sumter County, December 12, 1851, being nearly seventy-two years of age. The *poinsettia*, a bridge near Greenville, a hotel in Greenville, his bust in the Smithsonian, his portrait in the war department, and a few magazine articles and pamphlets, besides his official reports, constitute his chief monuments.

Doctor Rippy has made excellent use of the printed and manuscript sources for the life and career of Poinsett. He has produced not only a scholarly volume, but a very readable one. The parts which will be of most interest to the readers of this REVIEW are Chapters IV and V, dealing with Poinsett's activities in and relating to South America, and Chapters VII and IX, relating to his Mexican experiences.

MILLEDGE L. BONHAM, JR.

Hamilton College.

Aventura y Tragedia de Don Francisco de Miranda. By JOSÉ NUCETE-SARDI. (Caracas, Venezuela: Cooperativa de Artes Gráficas, 1935. Pp. 415.)

After the exhaustive volumes on Miranda from the pen of William Spence Robertson, another modern biography seems almost tautological. The bibliography of this latest Venezuelan study of Francisco de Miranda is meager, listing a bare ten titles, but among them, of course, the indispensable *Archivos del General Miranda*, and the biographical contribution in English just mentioned. The purpose of writing this general review of the career of Miranda seems to be synthetical—to outline the picturesque and variegated life of this Venezuelan adventurer in a fashion that will make comfortable and attractive reading. And in this Sr. Nucete-Sardi has succeeded.

The biography is divided into clear sections, each depicting a phase of Miranda's development. His initial Venezuelan experiences are dispatched in short order, giving way to the second epoch, called by this author, "The Traveler". Miranda, as a globe trotter, deserves more than passing notice. Several chapters are devoted to his life in Europe, and particularly in Russia at the court of Catherine, with whom he lived on terms of extraordinary friendship. Miranda apparently found an *entrée libre* wherever he set foot, as we follow his adventures across Europe, to Scandinavia, to Germany, to the Low Countries, and to France.

Then comes the third division, called "The Revolutionary", under the inspiration of France. Intrigues, adventures, war, and imprisonment make a colorful tale as Miranda lives through the tensest days of revolutionary France. Naturally, his rôle in American history commences at approximately this time. "The Conspirator" and "The Precursor" are the final phases of this rich life. These are too well known to require restatement. The pageant terminates in the disaster

of the first Venezuelan invasion and the end in a dungeon. In fact, no other end, except possibly a guillotine, would fit into the abundant existence that characterized Francisco de Miranda.

Nucete-Sardi has evoked the tragedy of Miranda's career with brilliance. The book is extremely well written, although, from the informative angle, a mere repetition and rehash of the Miranda materials. As an entertaining biography, with the picturesque element given its share, this work is recommendable. There is, perhaps, too much emphasis on the intrigues and petty incidents of court life and especially on the amours of which Miranda apparently was an unceasing protagonist. Apart from this, the story is told graphically and well. It is, however, in the last analysis, only another Miranda biography.

RICHARD PATTEE.

University of Puerto Rico.

Venezuela y su actual Regimen. By PEDRO MANUEL ARCAYA.
(Washington: 1935. Pp. 217.)

In recent years, in which civil disorders and economic and fiscal crises have been widespread, Venezuela has been notable as a nation free from internal strife and from debt. This study by the minister from Venezuela to the United States is a résumé of some of the misfortunes his country has suffered through political dissensions and civil wars in the past and a sympathetic appreciation of the work of the Jefe, General Juan Vicente Gómez, who brought peace.

Dr. Arcaya is inclined to question the democratic theory in politics generally, but particularly does he attack it as it has influenced Venezuelan public life. The dogmas of the French Revolution made powerful appeal to revolutionary Venezuela; likewise liberal and democratic doctrines from later nineteenth century Europe. Caudillos have inscribed these ideals on their banners and aroused the masses to fight for the "sacred right of revolution" in the spirit of the Spanish crusader of the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. Thus, without being understood, these formulas became leading factors in promoting revolution. All wars in Venezuela have had as their objective the substitution of one set of officials for another, but in them "the ambition of the caudillos has not had so much influence as the childish enthusiasm of the masses, the exaltation of minds, and the influence of ideas

that extol the right of revolution" (p. 70). Dr. Arcaya has elaborated his analysis of this psychological basis of Venezuelan political life in his interesting and profound *Estudios sobre Personajes y Hecho de la Historia Venezolana* published in 1911.

The author gives intimate pictures of political disturbances and revolutions of his childhood and youth, some of which touched his family closely. Men like his father, who did not take an active part in politics, spent their lives, he declares, longing for a civilist régime in which life and property would be safe. Hardly a home could be found that was not broken by these wars. In his sorrow and regret over the misfortunes and misadventures of his countrymen, he takes, nevertheless, justifiable pride in their admirable personal qualities and their nobility of character. The wars they have fought were not vicious or wicked wars; and the caudillos were almost without exception magnanimous, honorable, and humane men. But the fighting was futile and wasteful. Guzmán Blanco is commended for bringing peace and order for a time and for promoting material progress. He is criticized, however, for appearing as the head of a party whose principles he made no pretense of observing and for glorying in his prestige and prowess as a warrior and keeping alive the military tradition.

It is in the light of the turbulence and destructiveness of Venezuelan politics in the past that Dr. Arcaya evaluates the work of General Gómez. Among the achievements of the Gómez administration, he emphasizes the maintenance of peace, the payment of the foreign debt and the virtual extinction of the domestic debt, the construction of roads, and the promotion of the petroleum industry. He analyses and defends the law and practice of the state with reference to mining concessions. Among other accomplishments, which he enumerates without much elaboration, are the encouragement of public instruction; the promotion of agriculture and grazing through the abolition of export taxes on their products, and the extension of credit through a farm and ranch bank; free distribution of unoccupied (*baldíos*) lands to settlers; improvements in sanitation; the initiation of social legislation; the establishment of a labor bank; the abolition of the right to bear arms and the consequent reduction of crime; the reorganization of the army; and the regularization of the obligation to military service.

Dr. Arcaya deplors the attacks made on the Gómez administration abroad. These attacks he attributes in large part to ignorance of Ven-

ezuelan life and of the work of Gómez; in some instances to selfish and destructive interests, personal or political.

MARY WATTERS.

Arkansas State College,
Jonesboro, Arkansas.

Colombia and the United States, 1764-1934. By E. TAYLOR PARKS.
(Durham, North Carolina: Duke University Press, 1935. Pp. xx,
(2), 554. 2 maps, 4 illus. Index. \$4.00.)

In these days of radio and aeroplane, the two American continents are more closely bound than ever before, and it is particularly interesting to trace the development of relations between the United States and any of its Hispanic American neighbors. So far, more material has been available on the history of relations with the A B C powers than with some of our closer neighbors, so this book is particularly welcome.

In the case of Colombia, relations have more than once been really critical, and it is curious that such a study as this has been so long delayed. With regard to a book so carefully prepared and adequately handled, the reviewer is left with the unpleasant task of mentioning peccadillos, not so much by way of criticism, as with the idea of the next edition when it comes.

On page 89, no mention is made of Joel Roberts Poinsett's attention to the affairs of Colombia from the time he wrote Secretary Monroe in 1811, to urge that the United States be represented diplomatically at Bogotá, until his contacts with Pedro Gual. From a letter which Gual wrote Poinsett on February 9, 1816, it is clear that they were on friendly terms, since Gual seeks Poinsett's assistance in promoting South American independence. The documentary evidence of the relations between Poinsett and Gual is faulty, and the reviewer would like to know just what part he played in it. An undated memorandum on page 136, volume XVI, of the Poinsett Papers, written wholly in Poinsett's own hand, apparently about 1817, refers to the formation of a federal government in New Granada and may be a part of one of the reports which Poinsett submitted to the state department at that time. On page 102, it would have been interesting to note that Hamiltonville, where Manuel Torres lived and died, was then a part of the City of Philadelphia.

Seldom has the reviewer seen a more impartial presentation of a highly disputed topic than Dr. Parks's account of the formation of the Republic of Panama and the events preceding and succeeding it, but he wishes that an account of the neutrality of Panama from 1861 to 1865, during the War between the States, might have been inserted—especially with some allusion to the activities of William Parker, of New Jersey, who was then superintendent of the Trans-Isthmian Railroad. On pages 400 to 418, Felix Ehrman is called United States Consul at Panama, although as a matter of fact he never was actually consul there; he was vice consul in charge of the consulate during the regular consul's absence. He had been engaged in business in Panama for a number of years prior to his consular assignment, and so continued during his time with the consulate, which did not necessitate his ceasing his commercial activities. Consul General A. G. Snyder, who still lives in Washington, might have given additional information to Dr. Parks regarding our relations with Colombia in 1904, when Mr. Snyder was in charge of the legation there.

William W. Russell, mentioned on page 429, was a former United States naval officer, and had been ten years in the diplomatic service before he was sent to Colombia as minister, in December, 1904.

On page 430, it might have been explained that Alfred Bishop Mason's extensive properties in the Cauca Valley, in and near Cali, gave him an intimate and firsthand knowledge of Colombian affairs.

No minister that the United States had sent to Bogotá up to the times of James T. DuBois's appointment in 1911, had had a longer career in the United States foreign service. He had spent over thirty years under the state department before going to Bogotá, and he was given a popular reception at Cartagena on his leaving. He did much to cultivate good will by his tact and sincerity.

Regarding the Pearson contract mentioned on page 445, there are reasons for thinking that the cause for its withdrawal was on account of the activities of Dr. Dorotheus Kracker von Schwarzenfeld. The latter was then German minister at Bogotá, and his far-reaching plans included German construction of the Atrato Canal and seizure of territory on the Bay of Urabá for a German naval base. He saw to it that many Colombian importers laid in stocks of German goods, especially agricultural implements and hardware, sufficient for three years, by July, 1914.

On page 448, Dr. Parks might have mentioned that it was most

unfortunate that the United States was not represented by a minister in Colombia during much of 1918. Had Hoffman Philip (a trained diplomat of the highest and ablest type) arrived six months earlier in Bogotá, it is not impossible that Colombia would have at least broken diplomatic relations with Germany, as happened in Ecuador through the shrewd maneuvers of Dr. Frederic W. Goding, then the United States Consul General at Guayaquil.

The reviewer sees only one major omission in this book—a sketch, even slight, of the literary ties between Colombia and the United States. Dr. Nicolás García Samudio delivered a lecture on this topic a number of years ago at Colombia University which might well have been summarized by Dr. Parks and supplemented with other information which it would seem pertinent to have included in this volume. Mention might have been made of the translations by Miss Agnes Blake Poor and Mrs. Alice Stone Blackwell, both of Brookline, Massachusetts. Miss Poor made the first translation into English of *Maria*, the famous novel by Jorge Isaacs, as well as several Colombian poems.

Nevertheless, Dr. Parks has supplied a long-felt want in a very useful way, particularly as he has so skilfully interwoven the economic development with the political relations of the two countries. He is to be congratulated on his sense of proportion in dealing with the one hundred and sixty years.

CHARLES LYON CHANDLER.

Philadelphia.

Biografía del Dictador García Moreno. By ROBERTO AGRAMONTE. (La Habana, Cuba: Cultural S. A., 1935. Pp. 277.)

There has been a positive need for a definitive biographical study of Gabriel García Moreno. Not, perhaps, merely another sketch in which the salient incidents of the eventful life of the Ecuadorian dictator are repeated, but an estimate, an interpretation, and an attempt at solid comprehension of his rôle in nineteenth century Hispanic America. Most of the studies on or about García Moreno are quite unsatisfactory—panegyric or diatribe; rarely is a *via media* struck. The epithet of saint or sinner is hurled at him and no middle ground is ever taken in estimating his real contribution to the evolution of Ecuador.

P. A. Berthe wrote the one biography of García Moreno that attained anything like popularity and which has been translated into several languages. But the thesis is all too evident. Carried away by an intense admiration for the Ecuadorian *caudillo* and convinced that liberalism lacks all legitimate grounds, the French apologist of García Moreno gives us a colored and at times not very fair account of his protagonist converted into hero. There are many works based on this bulky two volume study. It is not modern history, and lacks that direct contact with the temper of the country and times which only a personal knowledge of Ecuador can bring. Since then, the bibliography of García Moreno has of course grown. The well-known Ecuadorian historian and contemporary of García Moreno and Juan Montalvo has contributed a veritable stream of pamphlets, monographs, and books on diverse aspects of the epoch of the clerical dictator.

There is quite naturally ample justification for the intense interest that surrounds García Moreno. The very fact that his every act still motivates impassioned polemic is sufficient proof of the necessity of serene historical investigation of his two presidential administrations. Perhaps, too, García Moreno is the prototype of the clerical executive, the laboratory specimen for the dissection and analysis of anti-clericalism in Hispanic America. What sort of a person was García Moreno and what were the characteristics of a personal nature that were most manifest during the long years of his domination in the Andean republic? Roberto Agramonte undertakes to give the answers, recognizing the complexity and amplitude of the problem.

Dr. Agramonte is undoubtedly brilliantly equipped for his task. Scarcely thirty years of age, and professor of psychology at the University of La Habana, he has already distinguished himself in the field of Ecuadorian history and letters with fruitful investigations of the work of Juan Montalvo. His association with the labor of this great man of letters, so much revered in Ecuador, leads inevitably to García Moreno. The two titans complement each other and in a sense complete the Ecuadorian scene during their life times. Dr. Agramonte's study is somewhat more than a mere chronology of events or a list of deeds. We expect from the professor of psychology a more detailed attempt at motives and reactions, and we are not disappointed. The sub-title of his volume indicates this purpose. It is called "Estudio Psicopatológico e Histórico". The initial division of the book, "El

Hombre'', gives antecedents, background, family relationships. García Moreno is a psychopathological case submitted to the keen scrutiny of a relentless investigator. Dr. Agramonte, clearly, will let no trait escape his observant eye. García Moreno is pitilessly analyzed, torn apart, and catalogued. The second portion studies the background, the stage on which García Moreno moved, and the long political career that led to the presidency and the dictatorship. Many of these antecedents reveal much concerning his character, temperament, and motives. The author's conclusions are uniformly unfavorable to García Moreno, who is not, however, considered a blunderer, or a clumsy manipulator of state affairs. His Cuban biographer considers him a political delinquent, whose character was warped and perverted, leading to strange and exotic excesses. He is, to cite the words of Dr. Agramonte, a "desequilibrado histórico", eternally unsatisfied until his own régime is instituted and his perversity becomes tyranny.

Dr. Agramonte disclaims all intention to judge or to dogmatize. He states that his objective is purely revelatory, to submit García Moreno to the tests of modern psychology in which man is neither good nor bad, but simply *is*. Many of the dictator's best known personal characteristics are interpreted psychologically—his rigidity of spirit, his religiosity, his abundant energy, and his scrupulous attention to the public purse. These are analyzed subjectively, revealing, according to this author, queer substrata of motives and emotions.

García Moreno's devotion, bordering fanaticism, is discussed in detail. Dr. Agramonte points out that there are numerous views held as to the explanation of this intense ultramontaniam. Juan Montalvo believed him to be a fanatic, *poseído del poder del infierno*. More recently, Roberto Andrade has sustained that his religious devotion was more apparent than anything else and the product of deliberate calculation. Morbidity of temperament is the explanation that Dr. Agramonte offers to make clear the religious zeal of García Moreno. This author is emphatic in his judgment of García Moreno as a purely pathological case, guilty not merely of political crimes and flagellation, but even of uxoricide. Whatever may be the evidence of these extremes, one must recognize that this biographical study possesses merit in focusing the attention of the historical scholar on recondite questions of motive, inheritance, and temperament. Dr. Agramonte believes the process necessary to clarify the problems of dictatorship and to reveal the inner workings of many of the minds that have dominated in Hispanic America in the rôle of *caudillo*.

The book is overburdened with technical terminology. Every page is so replete with scientific jargon that the average reader, none too familiar with the special lexicon of the psychologist, may find himself a bit overwhelmed. The illustrations are good—most of them facsimiles of letters or documents. The presentation is splendid, typical of the excellent printing that the Cultural S. A. does in Cuba.

University of Puerto Rico.

RICHARD PATTEE.

High Spots in the Andes. By JOSEPHINE HOEPPNER WOODS. (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1935. Pp. —, \$ —.)

This book, chiefly concerned with life at mines in Bolivia and Peru, is itself a good deal like a mine. One digs and digs, and one comes upon nuggets, many of them large and valuable. In other words, if the letters composing this book and covering the time between May 11, 1931, and January 15, 1933, had been carefully edited in such a way as to eliminate the considerable amount of irrelevant and purely personal matter which they contain, the book would have been far easier to enjoy and to profit from than it is.

Even as it is, however, Mrs. Woods's narrative is replete with brilliant and absorbing description. The lack of a map—even a very simple map would have been helpful—is compensated for by the magnificent photographs (mostly taken by Mr. C. S. Bell who, to judge by his work here is a veritable artist of the lens), which adorn this volume.

Mrs. Woods bore her husband wifely company with admirable courage and devotion at three separate mines: the Huanchaca silver mine, at Pulacayo, (Bolivia); the Choñacota tin mine, (Bolivia); and the Santo Domingo gold mine, (Peru), which Mr. Woods eventually bought, all the letters in the book being written from there and containing materials relative to the entire career of Mr. and Mrs. Woods in Bolivia and Peru. The record displayed by Mrs. Woods is highly creditable to her and Mr. Woods and to the many associates who figure in her pages.

Although Mrs. Woods has the annoying and essentially feminine trick of liberally sprinkling her narrative with super-trite phrases all enclosed in quotation-marks as though to emphasize their presence, she has the gift of vivid and orderly description, particularly as regards the Indians and their folkways, and as regards the glorious scenery in which she reveled. The account of the *Alacitas* festival which takes

place at La Paz in late January is delightful (pp. 56-58), and the interpretative description of superstitions current in highland Bolivia (pp. 152-157) has real scientific value.

Although there are very few references to history in Mrs. Woods's book, it nevertheless has importance for readers of THE HISPANIC AMERICAN HISTORICAL REVIEW because of its many pages relative to the conditions which mine-owners and their staffs must face today. If one reads these pages in conjunction with older works on mining in Peru and Bolivia he will inevitably be impressed with the smallness of the change brought about by modern improvements in the way of machinery. Today, as at any time in the last ten or fifteen centuries, work in the mines of different sorts depends very largely upon the arduous labor of Indians. Men of the type of Mr. Woods understand the importance of the Indians and do all that they can to ameliorate the hardship of their lot; too often they are rewarded with strikes, danger, and other disasters.

The description of the big storm which took place at Santo Domingo mine, near Oroya, in November 1932, is one of the most thrilling parts of the book and fully reveals the hazards of mining in Peru (pp. 281-286); and Chapter XIII is an engrossing history of the Santo Domingo mine. The passages indicated are only a few of those which make this book thoroughly well worth reading. A good glossary and an excellent index complete the usefulness of Mrs. Woods's story of varied adventure and exciting experience.

PHILIP AINSWORTH MEANS.

Pomfret, Connecticut.

Puna de Atacama. Bergfahrten und Jagden in der Cordillere von Südamerika. Mit einer Einführung von Albrecht Penck. By WALTHER PENCK. (Stuttgart: J. Engelhorn's Nachf, 1933. Pp. 232.)

Indianer-Rassen und Vergangene Kulturen. Betrachtungen zur Volksentwicklung auf einer Forschungsreise durch Süd- und Mittelamerika. By RICHARD N. WEGNER, Prof. Dr. Med. et Phil. (Stuttgart: Ferdinand Enke Verlag, 1934. Pp. 320. 15 M.)

The first is a diary of two journeys: the first, from October 31, 1912, to May 20, 1913; the second, from September 30, 1913, to March 27, 1914. These journeys were undertaken from Argentina for the

purpose of travel and hunting. Herr Penck seems to have had no other purpose in view than that of visiting the famed mountain region known as *Puna de Atacama*. He is a seasoned traveler, truly of an Alpine nature, and typically German in his *wanderlust*. He describes in detail the topography, the climate, the *flora* and the *fauna* of the regions through which he travels. He traveled quite alone except for his faithful *arriero*, the *mozo de mano*, and the *marucko*, all three of whom he found to be typical of the Spanish American serving class. He traveled on the back of an ever-faithful donkey, comfortably clad, when occasion demanded, in a warm *poncho*. He does not get far into the Andean region before showing his truly Alpine character. He describes in beautiful German, written in a charmingly delightful vein, the wonders and marvels of the *Puna*: the wonderful landscape, unknown to all save those who have traveled in the mighty *Cordilleras* of the Andes: the marvelously fascinating vast solitudes, the rock-ribbed giants on the top of the world, the yawning chasms, the seemingly endless rocky deserts.

Herr Penck has done a very good job. The book is well worth reading, and will appeal especially to those who know the lay of the land and its tantalizingly seductive charm. The book is bound in cloth, has some good illustrations, fine print, a table of contents, but no index.

Dr. Wegner has produced a very different book. He evidently set about making a serious effort to describe the life, past and present, of the most populous Indian states of South and Central America. Like Herr Penck, Dr. Wegner traveled in the region inhabited by the peoples whom he studied. He spent three years (1927-1929) in Paraguay, Bolivia, Ecuador, and Central America. He has given a detailed account of the habitat of the native peoples among whom he traveled, particularly of the habitat as an influence moulding the lives of the people. He has described the communal life of these peoples and their place in the political, social, economic, and religious systems of the countries in which they now live. The task essayed is a most formidable one, and one which would have caused less courageous men, but perhaps wiser men, from attempting such a comprehensive task.

Dr. Wegner deals with questions that have intrigued every student of the history of these peoples from the beginnings of the European occupation of those countries up to the present; and never more than at present. He deals with the origin of man in South and Central America and the effect of environment and alien rule upon the devel-

opment of cultures and civilizations in those countries. He naturally gave the greater degree of attention to the Quechua, Aymara, and Maya Indians. He has leaned very heavily upon men who have given the subject their attention, including Prescott, Herzog, Humboldt, Cardus, Nordenskjöld, Schmidt, Radwan, Staden, Vogt, Koch-Grünberg, Karsen, Lehman-Nitsche, Walger, Genlis, Müller, v. Halle, Wedell, Weule, Long, Wied, Catlin, Brett, Krause, Roxas, Gumilla, Clavicero, Baldus, Preuss, v. Tschudi, Ahlfeld, Schmieder, and several others, more or less familiar with the subject. He has failed to make use of the works of the more modern authors. It is true he discovered Dieseldorff and Posnansky; but he is blissfully ignorant of Means, Tello, and Uhle. He has thus failed to consult the men whom he should have consulted above all the others. It is for this reason that the reviewer is obliged, together with other reasons, to say that Dr. Wegner has really contributed nothing new in the way of *fundamentals*. He has done well in marshalling together many very interesting and useful data; but has also perpetuated, thereby, many theories that are old and now no longer considered tenable. In his effort to explain the origin and the cause of the development of ancient civilizations he is especially limited in his vision because of his slavish devotion to old and obsolete views. He may have been peculiarly well-equipped for his task, but the reviewer is unable to admit that he has shown evidence of such ability. The day is past when a man, however well equipped he may be, can pose as an authority in the fields of anthropology, archeology, ethnology, philology, history, and even sociology. The result is bound to be a mere cursory scraping of the surface.

Dr. Wegner has, however, produced a very interesting work. The style, while vigorous, is lucid and easy to read. The illustrations, numerous photographs taken on the spot by the author, and drawings, add greatly to the value of the work. There is a table of contents and a catalogue of the illustrations, but no index. The absence of an index is particularly noticeable in a work of this nature. The absence, too, of a bibliography is a serious omission, although the omission is partly atoned for in the use of very copious footnotes. The book is divided into chapters, with chapter headings, and the printing of the work has been done in a very commendable manner. The binding leaves much to be desired. The book is not only not strongly bound, but has only paper covers.

Indian Races and Ancient Cultures falls in the class of semi-

scientific works, as far as history is concerned, and will be more useful to the general reader than to the serious student. The social historian and the sociologist will find it useful, as will the instructor in geography. But even for these it has its distinct limitations in that it does not offer the up-to-date results of scientific historical research.

University of Pittsburgh.

N. ANDREW N. CLEVEN.

The Romance of the Floridas. By MICHAEL KENNY, S. J. Foreword by JAMES A. ROBERTSON. [Science and Culture Series, JOSEPH HUSSLEIN, S. J., General Editor.] (New York: The Bruce Publishing Company, 1934. Pp. 395. \$4.00.)

This story of early Spanish Florida is divided into two parts: Part I deals with the "Findings" from Ponce de León to Pedro Menéndez de Avilés, 1512-1565. Part II embraces the "Founding", the Menéndez-Jesuit period, 1565-1574. In the first section, Father Kenny briefly recounts with sympathy and facility the well-known story of the heroics of explorers like Ponce de León, Pineda, Pánfilo de Narváez, Cabeza de Vaca, Hernando de Soto, and others. These intrinsically interesting histories are played upon, apparently, as a prelude to the full organ blast with which the author favors the Jesuits in Florida. Here he places his chief emphasis. Although, particularly so far as the Jesuits were concerned, the story was continued down to the nineteenth century, it was, in the light of the specialized plan of the composition (which is not at first apparent), with the pianissimo upon the much more important Franciscans. It would have been more indicative of the proportion of this book had it been called *The Jesuits in Florida*. The author probably felt, however, that the title used conveys a better feeling for the epoch he treats and is not, of course, an effort to be misleading. In that connection, it cannot be said that the author lacked the historical imagination to project himself into Jesuit Florida. That difficult feat of historiography and the grasp of ecclesiastical terms and procedure naturally were much easier for a man with Father Kenny's training than for a layman.

In section two, the author strikes up the theme nearest his heart—the labors of the Company. In unfolding that story of heroic endeavor, Father Kenny pauses to apply his critical faculty to a number of historical legends. Menéndez de Avilés, Spain's greatest imperial strategist, emerges from these leaves not as Parkman's "pious cutthroat",

but as a valiant patriot, imperialist, and churchman. This is only one illustration of the refreshing, but convincing way in which this historian departs from the conventional in his happily phrased and highly sympathetic portrayals. Throughout, he revises erroneous minutiae as painstakingly as he thwarts the old campaign of defamation against Menéndez. It is only in instances where Father Kenny takes a sharp exception to authors on his own authority, without citing his sources, that one might wish he had reflected a little more fully upon the reactions of those writers. It was fortunate for the author that Spanish Florida as a generic term gave him ample geographic latitude.

Father Kenny has collected more printed materials bearing on one brief decade of Jesuit missionization than one would think readily possible. The bibliography (which is not divided into sources and authorities) shows how far afield he has gone in search for materials. And, besides, not all the books cited (some of them basic to his study) were listed in the bibliography. Although mentioning the archives in Spain and Italy in a bibliographical note, he has not troubled, on the whole, to cite specific *legajos* or documents. Occasionally, the references are written directly into the text by the expedient of parentheses. Sometimes there are also annotations at the bottom of the pages. Information is presented on nearly every page by means of copious quotations. The whole category of names such as Francisco de Córdoba, in which the preposition *de* is used, are entered in the index as De Córdoba, Francisco. It is nearly impossible, moreover, in an English book based on the difficult and erratic sixteenth-century and subsequent Spanish documents to arrive at technical perfection. That fact, every reader of books like Father Kenny's, should keep steadily in mind.

Throughout *The Romance of the Floridas*, there are various historically accurate illustrations, both half-tone and plain pen-and-ink. The endsheets are in the form of embellished maps, the first showing the data which have so far been collected on Apalache and Timucua (Florida proper), and the second representing northern Apalache, Guale, and the coast to Ajacan.

JOHN TATE LANNING.

Duke University.

Diary of the Alarcón Expedition Into Texas, 1718-1719. By FRAY FRANCISCO CÉLIZ. Translated by FRITZ LEO HOFFMAN. (Los Angeles: The Quivira Society, 1935. Pp. 124.)

Fifth volume in the series being published by the Quivira Society, this handsomely presented work, of which six hundred copies have been printed, is lent additional interest by the circumstances leading to publication. About three years ago, two poleographers in the Mexican National Archives found the diary of the Alarcón Expedition into Louisiana and Texas, a manuscript which had been lost for two centuries. Misplaced among documents on land surveys, it was buried in the section of the archives known as *Tierras*. The original manuscript, which was published without notes in the review, *La Universidad de México* (Vol. V, number 25-26 and 27-28), consists of twenty-six sheets closely written on both sides by Fray Francisco Céliz, chaplain of the expedition and priest of the mission of El Dulcísimo Nombre de Jesús de Peyotes in Coahuila.

The text of the diary, somewhat crude but vigorous, abounds in detail. It gives a hastily sketched but memorably realistic picture of the difficulties of exploring rough country in a year of heavy rains; of the variable humor of the diarist's companions; of the bison hunting and the christening of Indian babies which occasionally diversified the routine of travel.

All three of the chief motives of Spanish expansion in North America underlay this expedition; the search for gold, the conversion of the natives, and the fear of foreign encroachments—in this case, of the French. The coming of Louis de St. Denis, French trader, to Spanish outposts on the Río Grande in 1714

resulted directly in the permanent occupancy by Spain of the eastern Texas region in 1716, and indirectly in the settlement of the head of San Antonio River, in 1718, the colony on the San Antonio River being designed to act as an intermediate point on the long route between the establishments in eastern Texas and those on the Río Grande and as a defense against any further French designs on the Matagorda bay region.

Father Olivares proposed to the viceroy to transfer to the San Antonio River the mission of San Francisco Solano which he had founded in 1750 near the mission of San Juan Bautista on the Río Grande. The viceregal legal advisors counseled that Olivares and two missionaries of his choice be allowed to found the mission on the San Antonio; to found a presidio at the same place; to occupy as soon

as possible Espíritu Santo Bay, the presidio at San Juan to protect the region until a fort could be established on the bay; to found a mission among the Cadodache Indians in order to develop a trade in the beavers abounding in the country; to name Don Martín de Alarcón, because of his proved ability and great zeal in the service of the king, as the man to lead the new expedition into Texas; and to give Alarcón, besides soldiers and missionaries, a master carpenter, a master mason, and a weaver to go along at the same salaries as the soldiers. Perhaps the most interesting suggestion was that of a possible overland line of communication to be established between Florida and Texas. Accordingly, Martín de Alarcón, soldier of fortune of considerable experience both military and administrative, crossed the Río Grande on April 9, 1718, at the head of an expedition consisting of seventy-two persons, including seven families, with cattle, sheep, goats, chickens, six droves of mules and 584 horses. Four days later, he founded the Villa de Bejar, and so became the founder of San Antonio, Texas. Thereupon, in accordance with his instructions, he set out, on May 6, for the bay of Espíritu Santo, traveled to present New Braunfels, thence to Seguin, and on to González, arriving, to his perplexity, since he supposed the San Marcos flowed into the Gulf of Mexico, at the junction of the Guadalupe and San Marcos rivers. Following the San Marcos upstream to its source near the present town of the same name, he returned to San Antonio. On September 5, a week after his return, he set out for the bay of Espíritu Santo and East Texas, examining that region thoroughly, and crossing unexplored territory in a northeasterly direction to missions among the Texas Indians, "visiting the missions, distributing gifts among the Indians and receiving from them in turn many gifts and demonstrations of loyalty, delivering supplies to the hardpressed soldiers and missionaries, and examining the country for natural resources and for goods introduced by the French".

"With the finding of the diary of Alarcón's expedition and the testimonials attached to it", comments Mr. Hoffman,

it is easier to obtain a more unbiased estimate of Alarcón's rôle in the early history of Texas. Probably owing to the fact that the evaluation of his work has heretofore been based almost wholly on letters written by Father Olivares, the habitual complainer, and on letters written by the missionaries in East Texas before the arrival there of Alarcón, his efforts have been minimized. With the discovery of the diary of his expedition, this estimate can now be changed to well-deserved praise. In addition, with the diary were found nine affidavits, signed by missionaries and lay officials of East Texas, San Antonio and Coahuila, each of

which is full of the highest praise for Alarcón, and can hardly be overlooked. Considering the fact that the year 1718 was one of excessive rains in Texas, that Alarcón had a difficult time in recruiting the type of men he wished to take on his expedition, that Olivares offered little or no help and was in fact a constant hindrance, and that a great part of the country traversed by the expedition was unknown to the Spaniards until that day, one can but marvel at Alarcón's ultimate substantial accomplishment.

The translator supplies an introduction which summarizes briefly Spanish interest in Texas from 1519 to 1718, year of the expedition, and copious notes to both introduction and translation. Illustrations, maps, and an adequate index, add to the value of the work.

MUNA LEE.

University of Puerto Rico.

The Mississippi Question, 1795-1803: A Study in Trade, Politics, and Diplomacy. By ARTHUR PRESTON WHITAKER. (New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1934. Pp. ix, 342.)

This volume is a continuation of Dr. Whitaker's earlier work, the *Spanish American Frontier*, (Boston, 1927). It covers the interesting period in the diplomatic relations of Spain and the United States which lie between the Treaty of San Lorenzo (1795) and the transfer of Louisiana to the United States (1803). The volume is the result of extensive studies in archival and other source materials. The Spanish side of the story is based almost entirely on manuscript sources from the Archivo General de Indias, the Archivo Histórico Nacional, and the Archivo General de Simancas, which are extensively cited. There is also some use of French archives. Although the author makes mention of the British attitude toward the Spanish American conflict, there are no references to British archives. The American side of the story is written from newspapers, private manuscript collections, published documents, and secondary works. Although much new material has been utilized, the author finds a number of points which he is unable to explain fully.

The work is divided in four parts. Part one, "Two Frontiers", gives a detailed account of the people in the western country of the United States and in Spanish Louisiana, including a description of their life and a discussion of their problems. Part two, "The Aftermath of San Lorenzo", deals with the problems arising out of the treaty of 1795 between Spain and the United States. These were the

navigation of the Mississippi, the right of deposit in New Orleans, the drawing of the boundary, the Spanish withdrawal from the frontier garrisons and the Spanish sphere of influence in the Indian country. The questions which arose, the changing attitudes of the two governments and the progress in the execution of the treaty are outlined.

Part three, "From San Lorenzo to Paris", takes up the story of the French entrance into the Mississippi question, through its plan to acquire Louisiana. The American trade penetration into Louisiana is given in detail and considered more important even than the American emigration to that province. The motives of Spain and France in effecting the transfer of Louisiana are carefully examined and the theory that Spain was exceedingly anxious to divest itself of a too expensive colony is set forth. The pen sketches of the Spanish officials and other frontier characters are especially well done and give much light of the course of the events. Part four is entitled "The Flag Follows Trade". This part discusses the closing of the American right of deposit and its reopening, as well as the other events of the last years of the period which led up to the transfer of Louisiana from Spain to France and then to the United States. The account of the two transfers is very complete. Thus the author brings to a conclusion his study of the period which marked the end of Spanish colonial expansion and the beginning of American imperialistic progress.

The volume contains a great mass of facts and detail, which results in a certain lack of smoothness in the author's style. There is some tendency to repetition. The chapter headings indicate a desire to make the work popular and some at least are suggestive, such as "The Shadow of France in the West", and "A Change of Masters". Others, however, are less suggestive or even non-suggestive: such as "The Spanish Fringe", "Chauvinism and Incantation", or "The Enchantment Works". The notes are extensive with full citations of the sources used. The bibliography is embodied in the notes. To remedy this defect, an alphabetical list of authors is given. Unfortunately, this is incomplete, and in addition the page numbers are wrong. There is a list of the manuscript collections of the correspondence of individuals, with an indication where each is to be found. It would have been advisable to have given a list of the *legajos* used in the Spanish archives and the volumes cited from the French archives. In view of the fact that most of the references to the Audiencia of Santo Domingo in the Archivo de Indias are in the new system of numbering, all the refer-

ences should have been given in this system. Also some of these references have notations which belong to the Archivo General de Simancas, and others are incomplete. There is no way to know what reviews were cited or that the Annals of Congress and the Dictionary of American Biography were used, except by leafing through the pages of footnotes.

Despite the defects indicated, the work is a definite contribution to historical scholarship. It throws much light on a very interesting period of American history and on certain of the factors, diplomatic, political, and economic, which contributed to the beginning of American expansion westward from the Mississippi.

ROSCOE R. HILL.

The National Archives.

Pioneer Padre: The Life and Times of Eusebio Francisco Kino. By RUFUS KAY WYLLYS. (Dallas, Texas: The Southwest Press, [1935]. Pp. xi, 230. Bibliography. Index. \$3.00.)

The sustained interest in things Hispanic-American is evidenced by the ever increasing number of studies on institutions and personalities, incident to the spread of Spanish conquest and culture in the new world. In *Pioneer Padre*, Dr. Wyllys, in a restrained narrative style, offers a complete story of the life work of one of the best known as well as of one of the greatest missionaries of North America. Padre Kino's purpose in America was to further the work of conversion among the natives, yet this remarkable missionary holds a prominent place in this northern continent as cosmographer, explorer, and historian, as well. He made more than forty journeys into the interior of Sonora and Arizona, during which he became convinced of the feasibility of a land route to California actually undertaken by Anza in 1774. Thus Kino is a link in the chain of empire builders on the northern continent from Cortés at Vera Cruz to Anza at San Francisco. Kino's vision reached out even to the hope of spreading the faith to distant Cape Mendocino and "to touch the realm where worked the brother Jesuits of New France" (p. 189).

Pioneer Padre gives the reader a good background of Spanish colonial society and of life on the frontier where the human actors, missionaries, soldiers, miners, and Indians enacted a dramatic but toilsome succession of events, enjoying the fruits of victory or tasting

the sorrows of defeat as the fortunes of empire waxed or waned. The narrative abounds with topographical and geographical information, by reason of Padre Kino's many *entradas*. Relative to this feature, it might be observed that better and more copious maps would be a prime desideratum. A copy of the French edition of Kino's map of Pimeria Alta of 1705, which appears within both covers, because of its coloration, is not so serviceable, while the map opposite page 184 is too fine in its details. An attempt at a reconstructed map on a larger scale, or of a number of sectional maps interspersed throughout the volume, would be of great aid to the reader. The recounting of "The routes of the more important journeys of Padre Eusibio Francisco Kino" in Appendix A, pp. 205-209, serves for ready reference, and is worthy of commendation. This is followed by a five-page bibliography on primary and secondary sources. A good coherent account of the Spanish movement from Mexico City northwest to Pimeria Alta, is given in Chapter X, serving as an orientation and background to Padre Kino's activities relative to frontier advancement.

Chapter IV, "A Comet and a Controversy", contains the story of the celebrated "scientific passage-at-arms" between Padre Kino and Sigüenza y Góngora, the great Mexican savant, wherein the latter had the better of the argument. The closing sentence of the chapter, however, is unhappily worded. To say that "the episode shows his [Kino's] uncompromising faith in the dogma of his religion" is not only misleading and confusing, but incorrect. Whatever supernatural significance Kino saw in the apparition of the comet, in common with, perhaps, most others of his day, should be ascribed to his lack of scientific knowledge on that subject, and not to his adherence to any dogma—a very technical term signifying an immutable revealed truth. The outcome of the controversy was an estrangement between Kino and Sigüenza, not the accusation of heretical belief. In short, Sigüenza held the scientific viewpoint; Kino the more common and less enlightened opinion of erroneously confusing what was a purely natural manifestation with a superstitious belief handed down from ancient times.

Out on the desert, southeast from Tucson, stands today the great "White Dove of the Desert" Mission San Xavier, the most ornate and striking of the surviving Spanish missions within the limits of the United States. The author correctly states on page 153:

the real founding of this beautiful and famous mission must forever be ascribed to Padre Eusibio Francisco Kino, of the Company of Jesus, who put his hand to the holy work on that sunny day in April of the year 1700.

The preceding sentence, "The present building was destined to be finished on another site near by, and by other than Jesuit hands" while euphoniously expressed, fades away to colorless termination by failing to say those other hands were those of the Franciscans. A similar sentence occurs on page 82 where the author, writing about the district of San Xavier, says:

It was to be more than a century before the present handsome mission building was completed, and then by missionaries who were rivals of the Jesuits.

For the benefit of the average reader the word, "Franciscans", should have been added. The present reviewer is led to make this observation by contact over a period of years with the Missions in the West, and concerning which a surprising lack of clarity is shown at times by inquirers as to "Who's Who" in the mission field, despite the ever mounting literature on the subject. Aside from this, the author has done well to distinguish between the *founding* of the mission and the *building* of the present mission church, famous throughout the country. Of late years this venerable Mission has been a source of controversy between historians as to the order that built it. Interesting corroborative evidence from the archeological and historical viewpoint that the present Mission and the Mission of Padre Kino were two distinct buildings in two distinct places has been furnished by the Rev. Mark Bucher, O. F. M. of Santa Barbara, California.¹

REV. MAYNARD GEIGER, O. F. M.

Washington, D. C.

A History of American Foreign Policy. By JOHN HOLLADAY LATANÉ, revised and enlarged by DAVID W. WAINHOUSE. (Garden City: Doubleday, Doran & Co., Inc., 1934. Pp. xvi, 862. Maps. \$4.00.)

The original edition of this book, published in 1927 (reviewed in this REVIEW, VII. 479-480), has been known as a convenient account for class use, notable for its vigorous treatment of our policies toward international coöperation. It was not wholly pleasing to Hispanic American historians, as it failed to give due emphasis to various His-

¹ See his conclusions in this issue of the REVIEW, post, pp. 91-93.

panic problems as major conditioning factors of our diplomacy, and included certain misstatements concerning them.

Much the same can be said of the present version. The first twenty-two chapters stand intact, the portions on the world war and after are extended, and there are six entirely new chapters. The discussion of Caribbean policies is lengthened by a few paragraphs including a commendable summary of our recognition policy. The chapter on "Latin America and the World War" has been transformed into one on "Pan Americanism" simply by the addition of some pages on Cuba, international congresses, and the current non-intervention attitude of this country. In general, the discussion is adequate though brief. The successes of international conciliation in the Americas are duly emphasized, but the significance of the Panama Canal as a focal point of our entire foreign policy is not. Certain minor errors indicate lack of care in editing, or of familiarity with Spanish names.

The seven quite general maps inserted are most welcome. It is regrettable that the acquisition of Florida is still termed a "purchase" (map 3), and one may wonder at the bold though imaginary lines indicating definite northern limits of Spanish expansion in the northwest in 1775 and 1783 (maps 1 and 2).

The original serious lack of bibliographical matter is remedied not at all, though the supplementary chapters are adequately footnoted.

Washington, D. C.

PHILIP C. BROOKS.

The Exploration of the Pacific. By J. C. BEAGLEHOLE. (London: A. & C. Black, Ltd., 1934. Pp. xv, 411. Index. \$5.00.)

This is another of "The Pioneer Histories" being edited by V. T. Harlow, Beit Lecturer in Colonial History in the University of Oxford and J. A. Williamson. Like the preceding numbers of the series, this volume is being distributed in the United States by the Macmillan Company. The volume lives up to the achievements of its predecessors.

In limp English, Professor Beaglehole narrates the thrilling history of exploration in the Pacific from Magellan to Cook—a period of over two hundred and fifty years. The greater part of the volume concerns the explorations amid the islands of the far east and the south seas; but navigation in the vicinity of South America is necessarily a part of the story, by reason of passage through Magellan Strait or around the Horn.

The search for a great southern continent and the complete identification of the lands now known as Australia and New Zealand formed the motifs for most of the expeditions. The voyages of Spaniards, Portuguese, Dutch, English, and French are recounted. Those of Magellan, Mendaña, and Quiros, especially, are of interest to the student of Hispanic America. Those voyages tested the explorers thoroughly, most of whom experienced sufferings that might well cause the stoutest heart to quail. That the courage of the explorer still lives, however, was seen recently in the last voyage of Admiral Byrd and his intrepid men to the great southern continent; but while the risks are as great at the present time as in the past centuries, steam and electricity and better ships and food to say nothing of aeroplanes have revolutionized the business of exploring.

The voyages of the Pacific taken altogether are remarkable, not only because of the reasons for which they were undertaken, but because of the actual results obtained. They form a chapter in the history of exploration and discovery of the utmost importance, not only for daring but also for human achievement. Along with the increase of knowledge of geography went better ships and improvements in navigation. Dampier and Cook had vastly more opportunity than did Magellan and Quiros and others.

The volume is remarkably free from errors. It was bad policy to use Stanley's garbled translation of Pigafetta's relation of Magellan's voyage, for this was shown long ago to be very faulty and slipshod. The short bibliography of three pages might have been extended with benefit. But, as a whole, the book is excellent and should have wide reading.

JAMES A. ROBERTSON.

NOTES AND COMMENT

MELCHIOR DÍAZ—THE FORGOTTEN EXPLORER

The names of Cortez, Coronado, Cabeza de Vaca, and Fray Marcos de Niza are known to every schoolboy who has studied American history, but the name and work of Melchior Díaz are known only to a few advanced students. Lost in the tangle of contradictory accounts, written in archaic Spanish by semi-literate men many years after the actual occurrences, the story of Melchior Díaz has remained unknown and neglected for nearly four hundred years.

Forty years ago, George Parker Winship produced his memorable translation of the accounts of the Coronado Expedition, and in this translation are found the only good accounts of the more difficult and equally important expedition of Melchior Díaz.

From the translations by Winship, two conflicting accounts of the work of Díaz may be reconstructed. Both have indisputable elements of correctness, yet both could not be wholly right. One group of historians believed that Díaz followed the coast of the Gulf of California, while another believed that he followed the inland route from Ures, Sonora, to the Colorado River; a route used today by Mexican travelers. Neither group could prove its point. Those favoring the coastal route had logic in their favor, but there was no known water for one hundred and fifty miles along the coast. Those who favored the inland route had geographic knowledge in their favor, for the inland route was entirely practicable, although not an easy one. The argument against the inland route was this: would an explorer, seeking to contact a sea expedition on a sea which was easily reached by going down a known river, and about whose extent he knew nothing, start north, away from the river, in order to reach that sea? Obviously no.

The argument about routes subsided finally, with those favoring the inland route having a slight advantage in the light of the geographic knowledge of that time.

Since 1910, the coast of the Gulf of California, and the adjacent mainland of Sonora, has been partially explored. The Indian tribes inhabiting the desert region have been thoroughly studied, and old

ideas of what is possible and impossible in the desert have been revised, in the direction of greater possibilities.

The present map, showing the known locations of permanent water supplies along the coast of the Gulf of California, indicates that it would be entirely possible for a party of skilled desert travelers to go from Ures, Sonora, to the Colorado River, by going down the Sonora to the coast, and up the coast to the Colorado. It must also be remembered that the Sonoran desert region has become noticeably more dry in recent years, and that Díaz made his journey during the fall and early winter, when rains are more frequent.

Assuming that the coastwise route was followed, as was indicated in the account of Mota Padilla, as advocated by Herbert E. Bolton, and as shown to be practicable by discoveries of water supplies along the coast, let us follow the expedition from Ures, Sonora, to the Mud Volcanoes at Volcano Lake, Lower California.

Díaz, leading twenty-five men picked from the seventy or eighty weakest and least reliable left behind by Coronado, left Ures toward the end of September, 1540, driving a flock of sheep to be used as food. His orders were to contact the sea expedition under Alarcón, which was somewhere in the Gulf of California. He went down the Sonora River past the site of Hermosillo, and followed the channel to the Gulf, about one hundred miles from Ures. Whether he went directly down the channel, or crossed the Sonora-Bacuache flood plain, still none too well explored, is unimportant. Water was available either on the surface, or at no great depth in the alluvial deposits, throughout the entire one hundred miles. It must be remembered that a river, in Sonora, flows on the surface only after heavy rains, and water must generally be obtained by digging in the river bed.

Early in the down-river trip, Díaz met some Indians who said that they had come from across the water—"i.e. Lower California"—as Winship's translation of Padilla's account states. It seems more probable, in the light of present ethnological data, that these were Seri Indians, from across the water—i.e. Tiburón Island. The Seris still range inland as far as Hermosillo.

Near or along the coast, Díaz met a tribe of Indian "giants", who were almost surely Seris. The Seri tribesmen are notably above average in size, and, as the sixteenth century Spanish were slightly smaller than moderns, these Seris might well be called giants by them.

From the mouth of the Sonora, Díaz went north along the coast

until he met a tribe of agricultural Indians, who fed him corn "which they grew" and fish. These were probably Papagos, and the place may well have been a temporale near the present water hole of Pozo Coyote, sixty miles north of the mouth of the Sonora. There is one permanent natural tank, Aguaje Antón, between the Sonora and Pozo Coyote, and an unknown number of temporary pools in the rugged Sierra Seri, between Aguaje Antón and Pozo Coyote.

Seventy-five miles up the coast from Pozo Coyote is the mouth of the Río de la Concepción. Two permanent beach springs are known in this distance—Puerto Libertad and Puerto de Lobos, respectively twenty-five and fifty miles from Pozo Coyote. In addition, there are a number of seepage springs and rain pools along the coast. Díaz may have gone inland a few miles at Pozo Coyote to avoid an unnamed range of mountains between the Pozo and Puerto Libertad, although he could have followed the narrow and discontinuous beach.

The "mouth" of the Sonoyta River, the next known permanent water, is sixty miles up the coast from Río de la Concepción. As the coast between these points is practically unknown and has never been accurately mapped, nothing certain can be said about water supplies. Sixty miles without water would try, but not repulse, an experienced desert traveler. Stories current in Sonoyta, a Mexican town seventy miles up a river of the same name, tell of several beach springs along the coast, and Mexicans make the trip from Sonoyta to Puerto Libertad by going to the coast, then down the coast to the port. Observations from the Pinacate Peaks show that the country between the Sonoyta and the Concepción is relatively flat, enabling fast travel, even with a flock of sheep.

From the mouth of the Sonoyta to the mouth of the Colorado, water occurs in known springs and natural tanks at intervals of not more than thirty miles, although some of the water is hardly fit for human consumption. Travel along the beach is rapid, but a few miles inland, a party would encounter shifting sands and lava flows.

On arriving at the Colorado River, Díaz went upstream until he found a note buried by Alarcón some time before. Despite difficulties with treacherous Indians, he crossed the river some place below Yuma (neither account mentions the Gila) and went inland across the Colorado delta for four days. In this desert area, he found the Mud Volcanoes of Lower California, which looked to his men "like something infernal". Here, the party turned back because of lack of water



(or was it superstitious fear?), and returned to the "country of the giants" without trouble. This may have been the range of the Yuman Indians, but was more probably Seriland.

While guarding the flock of sheep, which still survived, very probably greatly reduced in numbers, a dog molested the sheep and could not be called off. Díaz rode after the dog and tossed his lance at it.

The lance stuck upright in the ground, and, being unable to stop his horse, Díaz rode over it and was run through by the butt end. His followers carried him toward Ures for twenty days, but he finally died of his injuries, and the party returned without him, arriving in Ures about January 18, 1541. The accounts state that no lives were lost until Díaz died, after which they hint, but do not state, that the party suffered losses from Indian attacks.

So ended in pain and suffering the life of one of the most remarkable and least known of the early Spanish explorers of the southwest. Almost within reach of success and honor, he was wounded while on duty, and ended his days in agony. His grave has never been located.

Díaz was a self-made man, of unknown parentage. Of him, Pedro de Casteñeda writes: "Melchior Díaz—a captain who had been mayor of Culiacán, who, although he was not a gentleman, merited the position he held". It would be hard to find a greater tribute than this, considering the great social gulf between the nobly born and the common man in the sixteenth century.

Today, Melchior Díaz merits far greater historical consideration than he has received. Not only a competent military man, but a daring and skilful leader, Díaz led an expedition over country which has never been traversed since, so far as available records go. He made the first overland trip to the Colorado River, discovered the Mud Volcanoes of Lower California, and was probably the first white man to see Pinacate Volcano, which recently erupted for the first time in centuries.

Let us, then, remember Melchior Díaz as one of the leading early explorers of the southwest, as one of the real pioneers, and not as a nebulous character inhabiting the unread pages of obscure source books.

RONALD L. IVES.

Boulder, Colo.

MISSION SAN XAVIER DEL BAC, TUCSON, ARIZONA

Who built the present Mission San Xavier del Bac, has of late years been a mooted question. Two assertions have been made. The first was that the structure was the work of the Jesuit missionaries. Later, when certain architectural features, distinctly Franciscan (*e.g.*, the Franciscan coat of arms on the façade), were pointed out, it was asserted that the mission was begun by the Jesuits and completed by the Franciscans. The purpose of this paper is to show that still greater modification must be made to the original assertions, for the mission was entirely the work of the Franciscans.

While I was staying at the Old Mission of San Xavier near Tucson, several questions gave me great concern. Why was the name Bac or Baac (meaning "where water comes out of the earth") given to this Indian village, when there is not even a traditional waterspring nearby, and the river is over a mile away? How could the Jesuit missionaries, who followed Kino in the first half of the eighteenth century, complain in their reports that the mission was located in a swampy place, frequently inundated by the river, when the present mission site and the village lie on ground several hundred feet above the river bed? Again, how could H. E. Bolton of the University of California imply that Grotto Hill was about a "quarter of a league" distant from the mission, when they are next door neighbors? Finally, how could the Jesuit missionary, Kino, enter in his diary the observation that water would flow into each room of the completed mission buildings, for which he had laid the foundation that day, when even now, no water can be led to the lowest point in the present buildings, even after the government has built a dam several miles up the river?

In order to solve these puzzles, I began to interview the Indians in the village of Bac, as well as the old inhabitants of Tucson, to learn, especially from the former, their traditions concerning the mission. According to these, Bac, the Indian name for the village, had reference to the Santa Cruz River, which is mostly a subterranean stream, but here and there emerges to the surface and flows like a normal river. One of the places, where the river flowed above ground, was about two miles northeast of the present village of Bac. However, I

was informed that this village had not always been located at its present site, but lay to the northeast, on the left bank of the river. Hence originated the name "Bac". The first query was, therefore, readily answered.

The solution of the first question furnished a key to the remaining queries. Aided by what I had gathered in lengthy talks with the Indians and almost equally long conversations with old Mexican families in Tucson, and assisted by Father Bonaventure Oblasser, O. F. M., an Indian missionary among the Papagos, I set out to locate the place, if possible, where the village once lay, and with this, the conjectural spot of Kino's church. From different sources, I had learned that until the close of the previous century, there could be seen in a field lying to the north of the present village, adobe walls ranging in height from three to nine feet. That these walls were the remains of Kino's church, no person would even remotely maintain, since the missionary himself tells us that he used tezontle rock for foundation, while these ruins, to all appearances, were adobe. Appearances were deceitful in this instance, for the adobe, as investigation proved, had been laid upon a tezontle foundation, and had washed down on both sides and completely enveloped the foundation stones. This was brought to light by the plowing up of that whole section by a land company, which was unaware of what it was doing (in an historical sense). On finding these stones, the workmen carried them to the southern boundary of the field, as was learned from one of the men who had worked on the project. Here these stones lay, hidden for the most part by mesquite and ironwood, until in one of my exploration trips I happened to stumble over them. On digging nearby, I found fragments of pottery lying in great profusion all around. On another occasion I found a wide ditch now only faintly traceable and running down to the river bed. At the jagged edge of the cliff, upon digging in the sand, I uncovered what looked like the remains of a dam. Likewise, where the water had washed broader and deeper, human bones could be seen.

These discoveries pointed to the evident conclusions that the old village of Bac or Baac had once been located here; and that this was the place where Father Kino had laid his foundation stones of tezontle. He says in his diary under April 28, 1700:

On the twenty-eighth we began the foundation of a very large and capacious church and house of San Xavier de Baac, all the many people working with much pleasure

and zeal, some in digging for the foundations, others in hauling many and very good stones of tezontle from a little hill which was about a quarter of a league away. For the mortar of these foundations, it was not necessary to haul water, because by means of irrigation ditches, we very easily conducted the water where we wished. And that house with its great court and garden nearby, will be able to have throughout the year all the water it may need, running to any place or work-room one may please. . . .

As one stands in that field which was the original site, there looms up to the south, a short mile distant, the hill from which the tezontle rock was hauled, and where even today, that same variety of stone can be found in abundance, while on Grotto Hill, there is no such stone, either on it or in it.

These discoveries satisfactorily solved the various queries. Even now when the river, swollen by heavy summer rains, breaks its bounds, this section is still inundated and still suffers from unchecked erosion despite money appropriations by the federal government. When Kino's buildings were finished, water could be led, "very easily" into any room, for it ran naturally down hill. Finally, Dr. Bolton, writes me that he was unacquainted with the topography of Bac and that he is ready to accept my findings.

Santa Barbara, California.

REV. MARK BUCHER, O. F. M.

An interesting item comes from the Dominican Republic. President Rafael Leonidas Trujillo on May 23 of this year signed an executive order organizing the historical archives of the nation. The new national depository of documents will be placed under the direction of the Ministry of Police, Interior, War, and Navy. The decree creating this new government dependency includes a detailed statement of the conditions under which documents will be preserved and used. Ten large or general divisions will be created to embrace every period of the history of the Dominican Republic:

- A. The Spanish colonial period, from 1492 to 1795, the Treaty of Basil.
- B. French colonial period, from 1795 to 1809.
- C. Period of Spanish decline, 1809 to 1821.
- D. The temporary independence, 1821 to 1822.
- E. The Haitian domination, 1822 to 1844.
- F. The first republic, 1844 to 1861.
- G. Annexation to Spain and the war of the restoration from 1861 to 1865.
- H. The second republic, from 1865 to 1916.

- I. The American occupation, from 1916 to 1922.
- J. The contemporary period, from 1922 to the present.

This important step will facilitate the serious investigation of one of the Hispanic nations as yet little exploited in historical research.—

RICHARD PATTEE.

Professor Arthur S. Aiton, of the University of Michigan, will give a series of lectures at the Center of American Studies of the University of Seville in the spring of 1936, entitled "America and the Family Compact". He is the second historian from the United States to be invited to lecture there, Professor C. H. Haring, of Harvard University, having given a series at the same institution last year. Professor Aiton's lectures will embody the results of the research he has done in recent years on the rôle of the North American colonies in Franco-Spanish diplomacy in the middle and later eighteenth century. He will be on leave of absence from the university during the spring semester.

The National Library of Brazil presented to the Library of Congress twenty-nine volumes printed in 1934 and treating of science, literature, history, geography, folklore, etc. Sr. Rafael Heliodoro Valle, chief of the section of bibliography and reviews in Mexico, gave the Library of Congress 103 volumes of recent materials published in Spanish America.

The *Report of the Librarian of Congress for the fiscal Year ending June 30, 1934* (Washington, 1934) notes that twenty-one legajos have been copied in Seville from the section called "Audientia de Santo Domingo", which are especially rich for the history of Florida and Louisiana; also seven legajos from the "Papeles de Cuba" of the same archives; and four legajos from the section "Ultramar" and six from the section "Estado"—these treating of the general relations of the United States to Spain and the Spanish possessions in the new world. These total altogether 33,403 pages.

Professor Percy Alvin Martin has received the highest and well deserved honor that Brazil presents to foreign scholars, having been made a recipient of the Cross of Gold. This is a comparatively new order, and has been granted very seldom.

J. Fred Rippy and James A. Robertson have been elected corresponding members of the Instituto Sanmartiniano of Buenos Aires. A notice of this organization, written by Professor Percy Alvin Martin, appeared in this REVIEW for February, 1935 (pp. 100-101). A small pamphlet of twenty-eight pages is entitled *Instituto Sanmartiniano: Su Fundación. Bases doctrinales y orgánicas* (Buenos Aires, Imp. Enrique L. Frigerio, Piedras 417, 1933).

BIBLIOGRAPHICAL SECTION

A MARKHAM CONTRIBUTION TO THE *LEYENDA NEGRA*

Sir Clements R. Markham's translation of the first part of the Chronicle of Peru by Pedro de Cieza de León has been accepted since its publication by The Hakluyt Society in 1864.¹ The accuracy of this version in English has not been questioned;² but the present reviewer, after a careful comparison of the Spanish text with the translation, has reached the conclusion that the Markham edition is badly rendered and cannot be used by the scholar or the lay reader.³

The case against the Markham translation may be based on three counts: (1) generally incorrect rendition of the Spanish text into English; (2) acknowledged omissions; (3) mistranslations of important passages and unacknowledged omissions. Were there only a few such errors affecting the sense of the work but little, they could be considered as a translator's choice of words; but there are a minimum of two hundred such omissions and mistranslations, and more if minor errors are counted, many of which change entirely the meaning of the original.⁴

¹ Clements R. Markham, tr. and ed., *The Travels of Pedro de Cieza de Leon, A.D., 1532-50, contained in the First Part of his Chronicle of Peru* (London, The Hakluyt Society, 1864).

² A search of the files of THE HISPANIC AMERICAN HISTORICAL REVIEW fails to reveal any criticism of the work, and such a competent scholar as Philip Ainsworth Means in his *Fall of the Inca Empire and the Spanish Rule in Peru: 1530-1780* (New York and London, Charles Scribner's Sons, 1932), and in *Ancient Civilisations of the Andes* (New York and London, Scribner's, 1931) cites the Markham translation without indicating any of its defects.

³ The Spanish text used here is that of Enrique de Vedia in his *Historiadores Primitivos de Indias*, in the Biblioteca de Autores Españoles, volume XXVI. The Vedia text has been compared with the first edition published in Sevilla by Martín de Montedoca in 1553 and the edition published in Anvers by Juan Steelsio in 1554. The latter was used by Markham in making his translation.

⁴ To cite all the pages on which mistakes occur would require too much space, so it is not done here. To correct all the mistakes would amount to a complete new translation. The reader who wishes to convince himself quickly of the errors in Markham may compare the translation of Chapters CX and CXVI with the Spanish version.

In the first case a few examples will show the lack of care in the translations. *Estío* is given as "spring";⁵ and the number of Spaniards at Caxamarca was *ciento y sesenta* instead of "one hundred and fifty" as Markham states.⁶ Where Cieza says that the valley of the *Conuchos* yielded *humana sustentacion* Markham says "sustenance of animal life".⁷ *Cálido* is translated as "cold".⁸ Cieza states that in the wars of Huamachuco *mucha parte* of the people had perished, but Markham makes it the "greater part".⁹ The wrong idea of the basis of much of Cieza's authority is given in one of the mistranslations. Cieza says: *óí decir que Paulo Inga*, but Markham makes him say "I heard it said by Paullu Inca".¹⁰

The second type, the acknowledged omissions, presents a more serious injury, making the translation absolutely useless in places. The reader is warned, of course, that something has been deleted and he may consult a Spanish edition if one is available, or if he reads Spanish. But given these two conditions translations are not necessary. In practically all cases where a passage is omitted the plea is that it is "unfit to print". Apparently Markham could not bear to put into English Cieza's observations on the sexual perversions of the Indians. There are some ten important omissions,¹¹ the most noteworthy being Chapter LXIV which treats of the priestly pederasts, who were common, Cieza assures us, among the Indians of both the mountains and the valleys.

The third type, the mistranslated passages and the unacknowledged omissions, do most injury to the work. Some of these appear to be of slight importance when taken separately, but their cumulative effect is enough to make the translation of little value. Cieza speaking of the city of Panamá relates that it was inhabited by *muchos y muy honrados mercaderes*, but Markham says merely "many merchants".¹² The city of Nuestra Señora del Antigua, a Spanish settlement, held *la flor de los Capitanes que ha habido en estas Indias*, but Markham peoples this Spanish city with the "flower of the chiefs of the Indians

⁵ Markham, p. 360; Vedia, Chapter XOIX. 442.

⁶ Markham, p. 275; Vedia, LXXVII. 427.

⁷ Markham, p. 286; Vedia, LXXX. 429.

⁸ Markham, p. 287; Vedia, LXXXI. 429.

⁹ Markham, p. 288; Vedia, LXXXI. 429.

¹⁰ Markham, p. 77; Vedia, XXI. 373.

¹¹ Cf. Markham, pp. 83, 152, 181, 182, 190, 225, 287, 297, 339.

¹² Markham, p. 17; Vedia, II. 356.

in these parts".¹³ Francisco César who conquered the province of Antioquia was faced later with a rebellion and an attempt to ambush him because the Indians, says Cieza: *creyendo que, siendo tan pocos cristianos los que con él venían, fácilmente y con poco trabajo los matarían*. Markham makes the rebellion occur because the Indians considered the followers of César "such bad christians".¹⁴

The significance of the word *despoblado* often bothered Markham and in many places he does not translate it. The following examples illustrate this. Cieza accounts for the differences between the Indians of Popayán, who were warlike, and those of Peru, who were less so, by saying that life was easy in Popayán and the Indians could move freely from place to place, growing a new crop every four months; while life in Peru was very difficult because of the great mountains and the limited territory in which life could be sustained. He very specifically speaks of the *grandes despoblados* of Peru and says that the Indians were forced to submit to the Incas and pay tribute whether they liked it or not *porque la tierra del Perú toda es despoblada*.¹⁵ Markham omits these two expressions altogether. Cieza says that the valleys of Carrapa were *muy poblados*, but the words are not included in the translation; while in the same chapter, Cieza says that the valley between Quimbaya and Carrapa was *despoblado* because of the wars between the Indians before the Spaniards came, but Markham makes it appear that the valley was a "desert".¹⁶ Cieza uses the words *muy poblados* in speaking of the mountains surrounding the valley of Lile¹⁷ and after naming several valleys in the region of Cali says of the others *en algunos valles están poblados*,¹⁸ but in neither case are the expressions translated. Cieza also enumerated a number of villages around Popayán and adds that *sin estos hay muchos comarcas á ellos, todos los cuales están bien poblados*,¹⁹ but this too is deleted. The translation does not mention that Guachicone [*sic* in Cieza; Guachico in Markham] was *muy poblada* nor that farther on there were *otros muchos pueblos*.²⁰ Pasto is described by Cieza as a region of

¹³ Markham, pp. 32-33; Vedia, VI. 360.

¹⁴ Markham, pp. 46-47; Vedia, XI. 364.

¹⁵ Markham, pp. 55-56; Vedia, XIII. 366.

¹⁶ Markham, pp. 82, 85; Vedia, XXIII. 374-375.

¹⁷ Markham, p. 100; Vedia, XXVIII. 379.

¹⁸ Markham, p. 104; Vedia, XXIX. 380.

¹⁹ Markham, p. 115; Vedia, XXXII. 383.

²⁰ Markham, p. 116; Vedia, XXXII. 384.

many villages *antiguamente* and it is indicated that a decline of population had set in before the conquest. Cieza then adds that *y aun cuando los españoles los conquistaron y descubrieron habia gran número de gente*,²¹ that Pasto was still more heavily populated than any other town of Popayán, and had more people than Quito or other places in Peru. Markham deletes the line quoted above.

That much of the depopulation of which Cieza speaks was caused by the wars between the Indians before the conquest is evident from the Spanish text; but the Markham version gives the impression that the lack of Indians was owing to the Spaniards. This may be seen by contrasting the Spanish original with the translation.

Cieza de León

Este rio hacia la ciudad de Cali fué primero poblado de grandes pueblos, los cuales se han consumido con el tiempo y con la guerra que les hizo el capitan Belalcázar, que fué el primero que los descubrió y conquistó, aunque el haberse acabado tan breve ha sido gran parte, y aun la principal, su mala costumbre y maldito vicio, que es comerse unos á otros.²²

Markham's Translation

The banks of this river were once very populous, but the people have been extirpated by time and by the war which they waged with captain Belalcazar, who was the first to discover and conquer them. Although he was one cause of their rapid destruction, yet another cause of it was their evil custom and accursed vice of eating each other.²³

From the above comparison it seems clear that Cieza considered cannibalism a more important factor in the decrease of the Indians than war with the Spanish, whereas Markham places the blame on the Spanish.

In a few places phrases that throw the Spanish in a favorable light are omitted. An example of this occurs in describing the administration of Pasto, Quito, Popayán, and surrounding territories by Lorenzo de Aldana. According to Cieza, Aldana *miró mucho el aumento de los naturales*,²⁴ but the translation says nothing of this. Instances of Spanish cruelty are incontrovertible and Cieza sought in no way to condone the conduct of the conquistadores, but Markham makes the charges against them even stronger than they were, as the following comparison indicates.

²¹ Markham, p. 120; Vedia, XXXIII. 385.

²² Vedia, XXX. 382.

²³ Markham, p. 108.

²⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 123; Vedia, XXXIV. 386.

Cieza de León

Cuando entramos en este valle de Aburra, fué tanto el aborrecimiento que nos tomaron los naturales dél, que ellos y sus mujeres se ahorcaban de sus cabellos. . . .²⁶

Markham's Translation

When we entered this valley of Aburra, the detestation we conceived for the natives was such that we hung them and their women to the boughs of trees by their hair. . . .²⁷

It is no compliment to the Spaniards that the Indians sought to escape from them by hanging themselves, but to accuse the Spaniards of hanging the Indians simply because of a caprice seems too great a willingness to believe the worst of the Spanish soldiers.

Still another type of mistranslation gives the impression that in many places the land was fertile before the Spanish came but not afterward, or that the fields had recently been destroyed when Cieza indicates that the destruction had taken place many years previously. For example, Cieza says: *y en el gran valle del Cali, con ser muy fértil, están las vegas y llanos con su yerba desiertas. . .*.²⁷ Markham converts this into: "But the great valley of Cali, once so fertile, is now a desert of grassy land".²⁸ The two important errors here, the one indicating that land once fertile was no longer so, and the other making a desert out of what was in reality a fertile pasture, change materially the idea Cieza intended to convey. This happens again in the succeeding example. Markham gives a correct translation reading: "The great antiquity of these people is also shown by the remains of cultivated fields, which are so numerous".²⁹ The remainder of the sentence is not translated. It reads: *y porque en algunas partes que se ve que hubo sementeras y fué poblado, hay árboles nascidos tan grandes como bueyes*.³⁰ This sentence, omitted by Markham, is rather definite proof of what the reader of Cieza's chronicle in the original comes to feel, that Cieza meant to convey the idea that there were many parts of America showing signs of a heavy population that had decreased before the conquest.

Markham also contributes to some of the misunderstandings concerning the relations of the poor Indians with their caciques and priests. The great emerald at Manta was deified and to it the natives made offerings, *las cuales después el cacique y otros ministros del*

²⁶ Vedia, XVII. 370.

²⁷ Vedia, XXVI. 379.

²⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 409.

²⁹ Markham, p. 67.

³⁰ Markham, p. 98.

³¹ Vedia, CXVI. 453.

*demonio aplicaban á sí.*³¹ From this statement it is quite clear that the rulers took the religious offerings and used them for themselves, but Markham alters the meaning by a statement that has no significance. He says "after they and other ministers of the devil had applied to it".³²

Statements indicating the despotic character of the Inca rule are sometimes not translated. When Huayna Ccapac had conquered the Guancavilcas and Tumbes he ordered Tumbala, lord of Puna, to come and do homage and that, *después que le hubiese obedecido, le contribuyese con lo que hubiere en su isla*; and later when Huayna Ccapac had built forts to keep the people of Puna obedient he commanded the lord of Puna that, *á su costa sustentarlos y proveerlos*.³³ Markham omits both of the above statements. Frequently, historians picture the Inca realm as one without any poor. Any mention of the poor, since they are not supposed to have existed, becomes significant. Cieza, in telling of burial customs, says, *y aun hasta los indios pobres tuvieron gran diligencia en adornar sus sepulturas*.³⁴ The translator omits the statement entirely.

The agricultural methods employed by the Indians are not correctly given in the translation. Cieza says of the Indians around Tumbes that, *los campos labran hermosamente y con mucho concierto*,³⁵ which Markham gives as "in concert".³⁶ The word *concierto* can, of course, be translated as "in concert" in some cases, but as used here it clearly means "diligently". The same mistake is found in another instance, where Cieza says: *volviendo al riego destos indios, como en él tenían tanta orden para regar sus campos, la tenían mayor y tienen en sembrarlos con muy gran concierto*.³⁷ Markham translates this as "which was done by many in concert together".³⁸ It would seem to be very evident that Cieza meant to convey the idea of planting the fields "with great skill" and not "in concert".

A statement showing the reason for the great stores of military supplies kept in the various warehouses along the roads gives another glimpse of the despotism of the Incas. Cieza says that such military supplies were necessary for the Incas, *porque fueron tan temidos, que*

³¹ Vedia, I. 403.

³² Vedia, LIII. 406; Markham, p. 195.

³³ Vedia, LVIII. 412.

³⁴ Vedia, LXVI. 418.

³⁵ Markham, pp. 183-184.

³⁶ Vedia, LVI. 410; Markham, p. 206.

³⁷ Markham, p. 213.

³⁸ Markham, p. 238.

*no osaban dejar de tener gran proveimiento.*³⁹ Markham does not translate the statement.

The storehouses mentioned were located every four leagues along the road and Markham's translation leaves the impression that they were so situated as to take advantage of the local food supply. That such was not the case is clear from a statement of Cieza's that Markham does not translate. The sentence given by Cieza and not included by Markham is that, *y aunque fuese despoblado y desierto, habia de haber estos aposentos y depósitos.*⁴⁰ Markham translates the section dealing with the wars between Atahualpa and Huascar but does not include Cieza's explanation of why 100,000 men had been killed, which was, *porque luego hubo entre todos parcialidades y division.*⁴¹

Markham's description of the mining system at Potosí exactly reverses the situation as described by Cieza, as the following passages show.

Cieza de León

Pues tomada posesion por los españoles, comenzaron á sacar plata: desta manera, que al que tenia mina le daban los indios que en ella entraban un marco, y si era muy rica, dos cada semana; y si no tenia mina, á los señores comendados de indios les daban medio marco cada semana.⁴²

Markham's Translation

When the Spaniards had taken possession, they began to extract the silver, and he who had a mine gave each Indian who entered it a marc, or, if he was very rich, two marcs every week.⁴³

Considering the disputes that have risen over the system of work in the mines and the position of the Indians under the system this error is important. Cieza makes it clear that each Indian was a concessionaire who paid one or two marcs a day for the right to work in the mines and says that many of them grew rich. He states that thousands were attracted to the mines by the opportunity to acquire wealth. It would appear that the *mita* system was the product of a later time.

As a final example the treatment meted out to the poor Indians by their caciques may be cited. Cieza speaks of the oppression in plain terms, but Markham softens his statements in translation. A comparison of the following paragraphs demonstrates this.

³⁹ Vedia, LX. 413; Markham, p. 217.

⁴⁰ Vedia, LXXXII. 430; Markham, p. 290.

⁴¹ Vedia, LXXVII. 426; Markham, p. 273.

⁴² Vedia, CIX. 448.

⁴³ Markham, p. 387.

Cieza de León

Yo entendí en el tiempo que estuve en aquellas partes que es grande la opresion que los mayores tienen á los menores, y con el rigor que algunos de los caciques mandan á los indios. . . .⁴⁶

Markham's Translation

When I was in these parts I heard that the chiefs oppressed the people, and that some of them treated the Indians with great severity.⁴⁶

That Cieza was talking of something he had seen and not what he had merely heard may be seen by reading the continuation of the above paragraph in which he states "I heard the poor Indians . . . lamenting over this oppression".⁴⁶ He also says that the friars had bettered the conditions of the poor Indians, and in a statement omitted by Markham he says that the Indians were no longer mistreated since *los españoles temen los castigos que se hacen*.⁴⁷

It is a disappointment to find a work of such reputation to be deficient in so many respects. While it may be argued that the scholar will always go to the source, or as near the source as he can get, such an argument does not suffice to condone a poor translation. Originals are not always available. Frequently, only a translation can be had. The matter becomes even more serious when the tendency of the omissions and mistranslations is noted; many of them were distinctly unfavorable to the Spanish.

None of the errors placed the Spaniards in a more favorable light.

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⁴⁶ Vedia, CXVI. 453.

⁴⁶ Markham, p. 410.

⁴⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 410.

⁴⁶ Vedia, CXX. 457; Markham, p. 425.

NOTES ON RECENT PUBLICATIONS AND OTHER ITEMS

A vigorous but uncritical defense of the activities of Spain in the new world is to be found in *España en Indias* (Vitoria, Editorial "Illuminare", 1934) by the Jesuit scholar Constantino Bayle. The work is another confutation—if such is needed—of the so-called "Leyenda Negra".

In the excellent "Colección Labor" of the Barcelona firm of Espasa-Calpe has appeared a two volume *Historia del Arte Hispano-americano* by M. Solá (Nos. 371, 372, 1935).

The fame of Bolívar continues to spread. There has just been organized in Madrid an association with the title of "Los Amigos de Bolívar", headed by Sr. Dionisio Pérez, and composed of a number of Spanish admirers of the Liberator. The object of this organization is to "defender y propagar la reincorporación de la gloria de Simón Bolívar a la historia de España".

The erudite Monseñor Pablo Cabrera of Córdoba has added to his long list of publications on Argentine history an *Introducción a la Historia Eclesiástica del Tucumán* (2 vols. Buenos Aires, 1935). The work is marred by a certain disposition to support the ecclesiastical authorities through thick and thin in their conflicts with civilian officials in the late sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. He is particularly severe on Francisco de Aguirre whose conduct he describes as "incorrecta, exorbitada y procaz".

The rapid development of periodical literature in Argentina is graphically described by Dr. Gustavo Martínez Zavería, director of the Biblioteca Nacional of Buenos Aires, in a recent letter to *La Nación* of the same city. According to Sr. Martínez the Biblioteca Nacional receives 1,041 reviews and 1,562 newspapers published in Argentina alone. Few countries in the world can show as large a number in proportion to the population; there is one periodical for every 4,600 inhabitants, and in the federal capital the proportion is

even higher, being one periodical for each 1,800 inhabitants. On the other hand, complains Dr. Martinez, the Library is poor in books. When it was founded by the famous Mariano Moreno, a century and a quarter ago, it contained 15,000 volumes, or one volume for each three inhabitants. The number has now risen to 350,000, but the proportion has sunk to one for each eight inhabitants. "The library of the second largest Latin city in the world should have at least a million volumes".

The second prize of the "Concurso Nacional de Obras Científicas" has just been awarded Sr. Alselmo Windhausen for his two-volume work *Geología Argentina* (Buenos Aires, S. A. Jacobo Peuser). The subtitles of each volume are "Geología General e Dinámica" and "Descripción Geológica de la República".

Possibly the most important book which has thus far been written on a comparatively little known portion of Argentina is *La Patagonia y sus Problemas*, by Colonel José María Sarobe (Buenos Aires, 1935). So successful was the work in arousing interest in this remote section of the republic that it was the occasion of a special presidential message asking for an appropriation for the needs of Argentina's southern territories. Among the topics discussed are "Las fuentes económicas de la Patagonia y sus Problemas esenciales", "Los problemas políticos y sociales de los territorios del Sur", "Las vías y medios de comunicación in la Patagonia". Introductory chapters deal with such pertinent topics as the historical, economic, and social history of this vast region. The Circular Militar awarded Colonel Sarobe the prize "Presidente de la República" for having written the best work of the year on topics of vital national interest.

Sr. J. C. Raffo de la Reta, Professor of History in the Colegio Nacional of Mendoza, has published a valuable account of the activities of the Carrera brothers in Chile in his book *El General José Miguel Carrera en la República Argentina* (Buenos Aires, Librería "La Facultad", 1935).

The Argentine deputy, Miguel Ángel Carcano, has introduced into the Argentine Congress a bill for the creation of biennial prizes amounting to a total of twenty thousand pesos to be awarded to the

Argentine author of the best book on Brazil and to Brazilian sculptors and painters who have produced works of outstanding merit. The prize of ten thousand pesos is to be awarded according to the decision of the newly created Instituto de Cultura Argentino-Brazileña. The prizes for the works of art, aggregating another ten thousand pesos, are to be awarded by a jury appointed by the director of the Department of Fine Arts, in accordance with the terms of the treaty of intellectual exchange (intercambio intelectual) of May, 1935. The works in question will become the property of the nation. Sr. Carcano is the son of Dr. Ramón Carcano, Argentine ambassador to Brazil.

An interesting study in comparative government has just been written by the Argentine scholar, Sr. Luis H. Sommariva, entitled "La Intervención Federal Argentina comparada con la Norteamericana y la Suiza" (Buenos Aires, 1935). In the course of this work, Sr. Sommariva examines and analyzes in detail the reasons which induced Argentina to adopt the United States federal system. He also points out that Sarmiento, in translating the *Commentaries* of Story mutilates and distorts the statements of the North American jurist to suit his own ends. Alberdi, Sarmiento's great political enemy, never discovered this deception as he was unfamiliar with English and knew Story only through a garbled French translation by Paul Odent. Sr. Sommariva has already to his credit an authoritative work in the same field entitled *Historia de las Intervenciones federales en las Provincias*.

Dr. Carlos A. Pueyrredón, a member of the Junta de Historia y Numismática Americana, and a prominent historian and national deputy, has just presented to the Argentine Congress a bill carrying an appropriation of three hundred thousand pesos for the erection in Buenos Aires of a monument to Francisco de Miranda. The appropriations are to extend over a period of ten years and the monument is to be inaugurated in 1950 on the occasion of the bicentenary of the birth of the Precursor of Spanish American independence. "El monumento deberá simbolizar la unión espiritual de Hispano America en la gestación de la epopeya emancipadora, estampándose los nombres de los principales precursores de cada una de las actuales repúblicas que fueron colonias españolas". The Junta de Historia y

Numismática Americana is to be responsible for the carrying out of this enterprise.

The all but forgotten figure of Abbe de Pradt who, in the second decade of the past century, aroused much interest in France for the cause of the independence of Spanish America, has been evoked with both charm and competency by the Argentine writer Dr. Carlos A. Pueyrredón in his booklet *Dominique de Pradt, Arzobispo de Malines, Político, Escritor y Diplomático, Propagandista entusiasta de la Emancipación de las Colonias Españolas* (Buenos Aires, Talleres Peuser, 1935). This work is based on the paper read before the Junta de Historia y Numismática Americana, July 6, 1935.

A section of South America, which seems likely to figure with increasing frequency in the world news, is the Bolivian department of Santa Cruz, an area exceeding in size any of the European countries save Russia. As is well known there has recently been developing a spirit of autonomy in this region, an outgrowth in part of the late Chaco war. The result may possibly be the complete separation from Bolivia. These considerations lend heightened interest to the excellent historical survey just written by the eminent and prolific Argentine historian, Enrique de Gandía, entitled *Historia de Santa Cruz de la Sierra* (Buenos Aires, 1935).

During the course of the late Chaco War assertions were freely made by many Bolivians that Paraguay was the recipient of covert though substantial aid from Argentina. The extent of Argentine interests, past and present, in Paraguay is analyzed by the Bolivian writer, Sr. Luis Salmón Baldivieso, in *El Paraguay, Provincia Argentina, breve Estudio de las Relaciones paraguay-argentinas a través de la Historia* (La Paz, Imprenta, Artística, 1935).

Sr. Luis S. Crespo, one of the best known journalists of Bolivia, has for years been contributing frequent items to the press of La Paz under the caption of "El Día Histórica". Recently, he has assembled and amplified the most important of these items and published them with the title of *Episodios Históricos de Bolivia* (La Paz, 1935). The volume in question is the first of a series of four which will ultimately embrace the entire sweep of Bolivian history. The work bears

a faint resemblance to the *Tradiciones Peruanas* of Ricardo Palma and the *Crónicas del Guayaquil Antiguo* by Sr. Modesto Chávez Franco.

Although the history of Rio de Janeiro has been intimately bound up with its neighbor directly across the harbor there has been up to the present time no adequate history of Nietheroy, the present capital of the State of Rio de Janeiro. This gap has been successfully filled by Sr. José Mattoso Maia Forte in his *Notas para a Historia de Nictheroy* (Nietheroy, Oficinas Graphicas do "Diario Oficial", 1935). The work has been written partly to commemorate the hundredth anniversary of the elevation of the Villa Real de Praia Grande to the city of Nietheroy.

All students of American archeology have heard of the Scandinavian scholar, Peter Wilhelm Lund, and his investigations in Brazil, notably in the grottoes of Minas Geraes. Especially welcome to specialists in this field is a new treatise by Professor Annibal Mattos entitled *O sabio Dr. Lund e Estudos sobre a Prehistoria Brasileira* (Bello Horizonte, Edições Apollo, 1935). The preface is by Professor Lopes Rodrigues of the University of Minas Geraes.

Interesting sidelights on the intellectual history of past and present-day Brazil are to be found in the work of Sr. Felix Pacheco, the director of the famous *Jornal do Commercio*, entitled *A Academia e os seus Problemas* (Rio de Janeiro, Rodrigués e C., 1935), Sr. Pacheco, who is himself one of the members of the Brazilian Academy of Letters, discusses such topics as the dictionary on which the Academy is working, the moot and thorny question of Portuguese orthography, "the tragedy of Brazilian men of letters", and other interesting subjects.

Under the somewhat curious title of *A Alma heróica das Coxilhas* (Rio de Janeiro, Editorial Alba, 1935) Sr. Castilhos Goyocochea has written a fascinating account of the historical and ethnic development of Brazil's southernmost state of Rio Grande do Sul. The book is chiefly concerned with the part which the *gaucho* type had in this process.

Lieutenant Colonel L. Nera da Fonseca has just published the first volume of what promises to be the definitive history of Brazil's much

discussed southern boundary: *Fronteiras do Sector sul*. Vol. I *Das Origins até a Annulação do Tratado de 1750* (Rio de Janeiro, Editora Cruzeiro do Sul, 1935). The chapter headings are as follows: "As origins", "Politica da expansão", "A Colonia do Sacramento", "A demarcação".

Those interested in the constitutional history of Brazil will welcome a new, and fifth edition of the well-known *Elementos de Direito Publico e Constitucional Brasileiro* (Rio de Janeiro, F. Brigueit, 1935) by the eminent jurisconsult, Rodrigo Octavio. This last edition, aside from being a drastic revision of its predecessors, devotes a great deal of space to the constitution of 1934. It is perhaps the most important single volume in its field.

The new Brazilian constitution continues to arouse intense, even passionate, discussion in Brazil. A searching but critical appraisal has just been published by Dr. Araujo Castro, federal judge in the state of Maranhao, entitled *A Nova Constituição* (Rio de Janeiro, Livraria Editoria Freitas Bastos, 1935).

One of the most pathetic figures in Brazilian history was the demented queen Dona Maria I., mother of Dom João VI., whose hegira to Rio de Janeiro in 1908 ushered in a new chapter in Brazilian history. It has generally been assumed that her influence in Brazilian affairs was negligible despite her title of "Princepeza do Brasil". A recent monograph by the Portuguese historian, Caetano Beirão, reveals the need of revising this view. In his *D. Maria I., 1777-1792* (Lisboa, Empresa Nacional de Publicidade, 1935) are seen through Portuguese eyes the Brazilian activities of Pombal, the conspiracy of Tiradentes, and a number of other events which agitated Brazil in the last quarter of the eighteenth century. The work also contains an excellent survey of conditions in Portugal during the same period. Then darkness descended upon the unhappy queen and she became one of the most tragic characters of Lusitanian history. As a contribution to the internal history of Portugal of the epoch, the work of Sr. Beirão is also important.

One of the outstanding figures in the history of Southern Brazil of the last century was David Canbarro, who died in 1867. He took

an active part in the so-called "Guerra dos Farrapos" which desolated Rio Grande do Sul for over a decade, participated in the campaigns waged by the empire against Rosas, and finally had a share in the Paraguayan War. A carefully written biography by one of his descendants, Sr. H. Canbarro Reichardt, under the title of *David Canbarro (Estudo biographico)* (Rio de Janeiro, Papelaria Velho, 1934), appears as volume IV of the series known as the "Edição do Centenario Farroupilha". It is an important contribution to the regional history of Brazil and to the relations of the empire with its Platine neighbors.

Occupying the ill-defined territory between history and literature, the work of Augusto de Lima Junior, *Historias e Lendas* (Rio de Janeiro, Ed. Schmidt, 1935) sheds a number of curious sidelights on hitherto neglected aspects of Brazilian history and traditions, particularly for the province and state of Minas Geraes. Especially interesting are the chapters "O escravo africano nas minas de ouro" and "Lagoa Santa e o Dr. Peter Wilhelm Lund".

Ex-President Gerardo Machado of Cuba has just completed a book which he calls *Ocho Años de Presidente*. It is concerned chiefly with an account of the relations between Cuba and the United States. It will be placed on sale simultaneously in France, Spain, and Argentina.

The Cuban physician, Dr. Francisco Domínguez, an associate member of the Academy of Medicine of Paris has written an interesting and authoritative biographical study entitled *Le Docteur Carlos Finlay* (Paris, Louis Arnette, 1935).

Under the title of *Black Consul* the Viking Press (New York, 1935) has published a translation of a work by the Soviet writer Anatolii Vinogradov on Haiti at the time of Toussaint and Dessalines. Though containing much that is trivial and even fantastic the book is interesting as a Soviet interpretation of this critical period of Haitian history. [This volume was reviewed in this REVIEW, XV.—Ed.]

Cannibal Cousins (New York, Minton, Barch & Co., 1934) is the title of a vicious and tendentious book on Haiti written by an ex-

marine, John H. Craige. The work is an uncritical defense of American intervention and a libel on the Haitians. Friends of Haiti like Senator King, Dr. Gruening, Dr. Herring, *et al.* are characterized as "insane radicals" or "fanatical negrophiles".

Possibly the greatest intellectual produced by Honduras in the nineteenth century has been made the subject of a sympathetic study by Ricardo M. Fernández Mira, entitled *El Padre Reyes, un Precursor de la Enseñanza* (Tegucigalpa, 1935). This learned ecclesiastic (1797-1855) strove unceasingly to raise the intellectual level of Honduras and is remembered as the founder of the national university.

Reference has already been made in these notes to the works of Dr. Fernando Ocaranza, an eminent authority of biology and physiology, and until recently rector of the national university of Mexico. Dr. Ocaranza's avocation is history, particularly the activities of the Franciscan order in Mexico. Two new books, of a slightly different order, have just come from his pen. The first, *Fundación del Imperial Colegio de la Santa Cruz de Santiago Tlaltelolcô* (Mexico, 1934), consists for the most part of documents dealing with this famous college which, established for the sons of caciques in the sixteenth century, fell upon evil days, only to be revived in the middle of the seventeenth century as a "Casa de Estudios" for religions of the Franciscan Order under the name of Colegio de Santiago Tlaltelolco, and still later as the Colegio de San Buenaventura y San Juan Capistrano. The second work, of perhaps more general interest, is entitled *Historia de la Medicina en México* (Mexico, 1934). This is a carefully written monograph based upon the best sources available. It is divided into three parts: "La medicina en el México precortesiano", "Epoca colonial", "México independiente". It is quite indispensable to all students of the history of medicine in Mexico.

The intervention in Mexico and the tragic empire of Maximilian exercise an endless fascination in France. The latest work on the subject is by Georges Delamare, *L'Empire Oublié* (Paris, 1935). No less a personage than General Weygand has contributed a preface.

Under the title of "Colección Tesoro", Don Miguel Artigas, the erudite director of the Biblioteca Nacional of Madrid, has launched a

new series of Spanish classics, many of which are of interest to the historian and in some instances are difficult to secure in a convenient edition. The collection is published by the "Biblioteca Nueva" of Madrid (68, Calle de la Lista) and includes such works as *Las Siete Partidas*, *Las Casas*, *Historia de las Indias*, Bernal Díaz del Castillo, *Descubrimiento y Conquista de México*.

The Mexican writer, Luis Guzmán, has just published *Avec Pancho Villa*, in the series of "Les grand aventuriers d'aujourd'hui" (Paris, Bernard Grasset, 1935).

The brilliant young professor of the University of San Marcos, Dr. Jorge Guillermo Leguia, whose death in January, 1934, was such a great loss to Peruvian history and letters, left the manuscript of a study of one of the most curious and intriguing characters of colonial Peru. Thanks to the pious devotion of a young woman who was to be his wife this valuable study has been issued posthumously under the title of *Manuel Lorenzo de Vidaurre* (Lima, 1935).

A carefully documented account of the early years of the national period of Uruguay has recently appeared from the pen of Pedro Riva-Zucchelli, *Historia de la Independencia de la República Oriental del Uruguay* (Montevideo, Imprenta "El Siglo Ilustrado", 1934).

The appearance in Chile of a second edition of the works of the famous Venezuelan critic and grammarian, Andrés Bello, has been made the occasion of an excellent appraisal of the works and influence of this eminent writer, critic, and grammarian by the Venezuelan writer, Rafael Caldera R., whose essay *Andrés Bello* (Caracas, Parra León Hermanos, Editores, 1935) won the prize offered by the Academia Venezolana de la Lengua.

PERCY ALVIN MARTIN.

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HAITIAN NOTES

Not since the days of Beaubrun Ardouin and Thomas Madiou has Haitian history received the attention of national scholars as at the present. Credit for this renaissance of interest in things historical is owing in large measure to the excellent work of the *Société d'Histoire et de Géographie d'Haiti*. This organization was founded in 1923 with an original membership of twenty-five persons, all well known in intellectual circles in the republic. The society is now under the presidency of the great Haitian folklorist and ethnologist, Dr. Price Mars, whose studies in voodoo and Haitian folklore are widely and favorably known. The society publishes a journal known as the *Revue de la Société d'Histoire et de Géographie d'Haiti*, which has reached its sixth volume and eighteenth number. It is published quarterly and includes, generally, a single monograph on some phase of Haitian history or geography. Among the collaborators of note are Dr. Mars, Pauléus Sannon, Dantès Bellegarde, and others.

A Haitian journal that is issued twice weekly, *Le Temps*, contains from time to time contributions of an historical nature of considerable value. The publication is under the direction of Charles Moravia. Each number contains a short analysis of contemporary politics and one or two articles of a more permanent character. M. Jules Faine of Port-au-Prince is publishing in this review a series of articles under the title, *Contribution à l'Etude du Créole*, an exceedingly interesting study of the evolution of the popular speech of the Haitian peasants, from the historical as well as strictly philological viewpoint. A recent number contained an article interpreting the policy of Toussaint Louverture, contributed by the gifted Haitian lecturer and writer, Louis Mercier of Cap Haitien.

A publication which no student of Haiti should overlook is *La Relève*, a monthly literary magazine, now in its third year and under the editorship of Jacques C. Antoine, at the present time secretary of the Haitian legation in Washington. While devoted largely to literature as such, there are frequent contributions of an historical nature,

of more than passing importance for the investigation of Haitian affairs.

The first president of the historical society, M. Pauleus Sannon has published numerous important monographs on diverse phases of the period of the wars of independence. None, however, are so indispensable to a proper comprehension of this complicated epoch as his three volume study of Toussaint Louverture, far and away the most exhaustive study of this national hero yet to appear. Unfortunately, there occurs in this case what is so common in printing in Haiti. Material difficulties prevented the issuing of the three volumes at the same time and a lapse of some years has taken place between the first volume and the succeeding two. Consequently, the initial volume is now rare and difficult to find, while the other two were issued in 1933. This work bears the title, *Histoire de Toussaint Louverture*, and is published in Port-au-Prince. The story of Louverture is carried through to his captivity at Joux and the final events that led to complete separation from France. M. Sannon is at present the director of the Lycée Alexandre Pétion.

M. Abel Léger published in 1930 the first volume of his *Histoire Diplomatique d'Haiti*, which covers the period from independence in 1804 down through to the fall of the empire of Faustin Soulouque in 1859. This was intended as the beginning of a series that would serve as a complete analysis of the diplomatic history of the nation during the one hundred and thirty years of its existence. Only this one volume has appeared to date. M. Léger is one of Haiti's most brilliant jurists, and long active in legal and diplomatic circles.

Another noted Haitian intellectual, Dantès Bellegarde, promises a third volume of his *Pour une Haiti Heureuse* (Vol. I, Port-au-Prince, 1928; Vol. II, 1929). Covering as these volumes do, a fascinating period of Haitian history, namely, the epoch that brings on the American occupation, these varied notes of M. Bellegarde shed considerable light on the events in government circles during the tragic years that immediately preceded 1915. The author continues in his second volume an exposé of his activities in the government of President Dartiguenave, under whom he served as minister of public instruction. M. Bellegarde has just claim to the title of ambassador of Haitian culture.

His long diplomatic career in Paris, Geneva, and Washington and close contact with every Haitian government for the past thirty years, gives his impressions and observations a strong stamp of veracity.

One of the most productive of modern Haitian historians is M. Antoine Michel. The list of his writings is long, most of them covering the national period. His work, *La Mission du Général Hédouville à Saint Domingue* (Port-au-Prince, 1929) was a prelude to an abundant and uniformly excellent series of monographs which should be better known outside of Haiti, for their intrinsic worth and balanced viewpoint. M. Michel examines the rise to power of one of the most colorful figures in Haitian history, General Geffrard, in his *Avenement du Général Fabre Nicolas Geffrard à la Présidence d'Haiti* (Port-au-Prince, 1932). This little volume of one hundred and forty pages is a study of the difficult period that followed the collapse of the empire of Soulouque. General Geffrard restored the republic in 1859, initiating a number of extraordinary reforms of permanent value in the progress of Haiti. This work is limited strictly to the history of the arrival in power of Geffrard. In 1932, M. Michel began the publication of a series known as the *XIVe Législature* (4 volumes, Port-au-Prince, 1932-1933). The period embraced is that of the last half of the nineteenth century, during which Haiti witnessed the formation of two political parties, the *Parti Libéral* and the *Parti National*, names that are associated with the two personalities that dominate the politics of this era, Lysius Salomon, president from 1879 to 1888, and Boyer Bazelais, the head of the liberal movement. It is undoubtedly true that during the past two generations, party labels in Haiti, when they have meant anything at all, have signified either sympathy for or antipathy to the cause of Boyer Bazelais. These four little volumes are not merely historical investigation, but are destined to teach modern Haiti a number of things. Liberalism was largely a name. M. Michel considers that Bazelais was lacking in political tact and capacity thus depriving him of the presidency and allowing President Salomon to annihilate his forces upon his return from Jamaica. In 1934, this same author published his *l'Emprunt de trois millions de piastres* (Port-au-Prince, 1934). The reference is to the loan that was authorized on August 12, 1874, during the presidency of Michel Domingue. This is a detailed study of this interesting financial question, and an object lesson, indeed, in national economics. The con-

dition of Haitian finances at that time was deplorable, and the government was utterly incapable of dominating a chaotic situation. M. Michel has made amazingly clear the government policy of President Domingue who was controlled and dominated by his nephew Septimus Rameau.

Two general histories of Haiti have been published that are worth noting. Dr. J. C. Dorsainvil has issued a revised edition of his *Manuel d'Histoire d'Haiti* (Port-au-Prince, 1934), the first edition having been published in 1928 in collaboration with the Christian Brothers of Port-au-Prince. The work was intended as a convenient school text. The new edition is enlarged and brought down to 1934. The descriptive portion of the text discusses Haitian affairs down to the administration of President Guillaume Vilbrun Sam, whose death paved the way for American intervention. There is a sketch of religious history and a chronological summary with each chapter. For easy reference there is no single volume better suited for the study of Haiti.

A second general history is from the pen of Dr. François Dalencour, *Précis Méthodique d'Histoire d'Haiti* (Port-au-Prince, 1935). This is a long promised volume by a distinguished medical man of Port-au-Prince who has devoted his leisure to historical research. This revised, modern history of Haiti, as it is called by the author, embraces the entire period from the discovery down to the election of Sténio Vincent to the presidency in 1930. The work is marred by a strong passion. Dr. Dalencour is a decided and enthusiastic "pétioniste", a partisan of the first president of Haiti, Alexandre Pétion, and sharing his semi-democratic ideals for the nation. One feels that the history of Haiti is being interpreted from a preconceived premise. Does or does not each administration conform to Pétion's notion of the state? If it does not, it is to be condemned and declared void. Only three Haitians have fulfilled their obligations to the country while occupying the presidency—Pétion, Boyer, and Geffrard. The rest have been either incompetents or have allowed dreams of dictatorship and personal power dominate them. A serious criticism of this work rests on the fact that the other three founders of independent Haiti, Dessalines, Christophe, and Toussaint Louverture are either neglected or accused of notable shortcomings in the management of the country. The long section devoted to the American occupation deserved special consid-

eration. It is still dangerous to form a final judgment on this thorny question. Only in August of 1934 did this period terminate and the passions and violence of the twenty years of subjugation are still strong. Dr. Dalencour is uncompromising in his condemnation of American intervention. In this viewpoint he reflects the attitude of vast numbers of his fellow countrymen. There is neither index nor bibliography. The book is badly printed.

There has appeared in Paris an interesting study in Haitian economics, written originally as a dissertation for the doctorate in the law faculty of Paris. The author is Raymond Reynaud and the work, *Le Régime Foncier en Haïti* (Paris, 1934). This bulky volume is the result of exhaustive research into questions affecting property and the legal system prevalent in Haiti. The author spent several months in the republic and has added for general interest several introductory chapters that summarize brilliantly the historical development of Haiti and especially the economic factor in its influence on the evolution of national institutions. There has been a dire need of an adequate economic analysis of Haiti. The peculiar condition that dominates of small peasant holdings and the fact that the state controls vast holdings of land has made it possible for Haiti to follow a form of economic development that some observers have called, "pre-capitalistic". President Vincent has written the preface of this very important contribution.

Some mystery seems to surround the problem of the sources for the study of Haitian history that are available to the investigator in Port-au-Prince. By far the best Haitian library in the country is that of the Christian Brothers. It is known as the *Bibliothèque Haïtienne des Frères*, and at the present is under the immediate direction of Frère Chrysostome. This library is organized at the Institution Saint Louis de Gonzague and is available to the serious student. There is perhaps nothing quite comparable to it in existence. Perfectly classified, this collection embraces every phase of Haitian life, with excellent facilities for work in history. Haitian newspapers from 1832 are available, and large collections of the *Moniteur Universel* serve to cover the whole period of the French Revolution and Napoleon. Especially rich is this library in official publications, pamphlets, and manuscripts. Many rare volumes have been made available in type-

written copies. The director is desirous of establishing contacts with those interested in Haitian bibliography.

The July, 1935, number of the *Reveu de la Soci  t   d'Histoire et G  ographie d'Haiti* contains an extremely valuable article by M. G. Debien of Cairo, a correspondent of the society, on the manuscript sources of the history of Saint Domingue. Especially valuable is this abundant list for materials in manuscript to be found in the various archives and libraries of France. Colonial Saint Domingue is well represented. Information on this worthwhile publication of the Haitian society can be obtained from the treasurer, M. Henri Adam Michel, Rue du Peuple, Port-au-Prince, Haiti.

The recent work on Haiti by Richard Loederer, called *Voodoo Fire in Haiti* has aroused an extraordinary reaction in the United States. The book has been variously reviewed, and curiously enough, in each case of a reviewer acquainted with Haiti, the decision has been unfavorable. It is a highly fanciful study of Haitian history and customs, suited only to the sensation seeker. It is unfortunate for the serious study of the history of Haiti that such trash is perpetrated in the name of veracity and exactitude.

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OTHER NOTES

The Editorial América of Quito, Ecuador, has begun the publication of a series of works in Ecuadorian letters, whose purpose, according to the preface in the first volume issued, is to make known abroad the merits of Ecuadorian literary and historical production. The series opens with a contribution by Augusto Arias, distinguished young literary man, entitled, *El Cristal Indígena*, a biographical study of Dr. Luis Espejo, noted medical man, writer, and thinker of the latter quarter of the eighteenth century. The book is an excellent picture of life in Quito during the last years of the colony.—RICHARD PATTEE.

Alejandro Andrade Coello of Quito, known as a lover of all that recalls old Quito, has written a small volume called *Del Quito Antiguo*, which was published in the Ecuadorian capital during 1935. It consists of a series of sketches of scenes and incidents dear to the history of that ancient city.—R. P.

A valuable little contribution to Ecuadorian letters is an essay by Roberto Agramonte of the University of La Habana on Juan Montalvo. The young Cuban intellectual writes on the theme of *El Panorama Cultural de Montalvo*. This modest work of some sixty pages is printed in Ambato, Ecuador, under the auspices of the Casa de Montalvo, which has begun the issuing of what is known as "Publicaciones de la Biblioteca de Autores Nacionales". This interesting organization has already published various of the lesser known works of Montalvo.—R. P.

The prolific Brazilian intellectual, Gustavo Barroso, has published two recent volumes, both of them in the line of his well known fascist thought. The publishing house, "Civilização Brasileira", issued some months ago his *A Palavra e Pensamento Integralista*, a series of essays on the character and doctrine of the integralist movement in Brazil. The most recent volume is entitled, *O Quarto Império*, which may be called in a simple form a story of the development of ideas and institutions, all pointing as one might expect toward the totalitarian state and the corporativist organization of society.—R. P.

Dr. Juan B. Soto, distinguished Puerto Rican lawyer and man of letters, has initiated the second period of his interesting publication *Puerto Rico*, a monthly review of literature and history. Now in its fifth number, this journal has published a number of leading articles of interest to the student of Puerto Rican history, and in addition, valuable bibliographical notes of books and publications issued in the island during the month.—R. P.

The Bolivian writer and poet, Fernando Diez de Medina, has published in La Paz a collection of essays under the title *El Veleró Matinal*. The book is varied, with chapters of interest to the historical investigator. The most stimulating is perhaps the one dealing with General Narciso Campero and the period of Melgarejo. There are studies of Franz Tamayo, the noted thinker of contemporary Bolivia, of Jaime Freyre, and a chapter that is strongly reminiscent of Waldo Frank, called "La Sangre Interior de Nuestra América".—R. P.

The *Catalogue of Judæo-Spanish Books in the Jewish National and University Library*, Jerusalem, by Abraham Yaari (special supplement to "Kirjath Sepher", vol. X. Jerusalem, University Press, 1934, pp. 126), contains 859 items of Ladino (Judæo-Spanish in Hebrew characters) covering all phases of Jewish literature, Bible, Talmud, Liturgy, Ethics, Kabbalah, History (ancient and modern), Biography, Zionism, Belle-lettres, Spanish language and literature, etc. Among the belle-lettres are included a number of translations from European authors. This is the most comprehensive bibliography of Ladino literature since Kayserling published his *Biblioteca Española-Portuguesa-Judaica* in 1890. A copy of the volume is in the Semitic Division of the Library of Congress.—A. SHAPIRO.

Dr. Julio C. Salas, in his *Estudios Americanistas* (Caracas, 1934, pp. 87), discusses: Orígenes Americanos—Estudio comparativo sobre las Lenguas y Religiones Indicas de la Americana precolombiana; La Cruz—para los Mejicanos; Padre y Pan nuestro; and Los Dioses Americanos—Análisis comparativo del Dios Huracán de los Maya-Quiche, etc. Dr. Salas is well known for his other works, among which may be mentioned especially his *Tierra Firme*, which treats of the ethnology and history of Venezuela and Colombia; *Paz y Trabajo*, dealing with agriculture, commerce, and industry; and various

memorias of ethnology, anthropology, and sociology. He is also the author of a still unpublished work on the history of Venezuela, and has been editor of the ethnological and ethnographical review called *De re Indica*.

Dr. Emeterio S. Santovenia read a paper entitled "El Presidente Polk y Cuba" at the session of the Academia de la Historia de Cuba, on October 10, 1935. This has been published with additions at Havana by Imprenta "El Siglo XX", A. Muñiz y Hno., República del Brasil, 27. The printed version is divided into chapters as follows: Desde Jefferson hasta Tyler; Carrera de Polk; El Cónsul Campbell; Confidencias de O'Sullivan; Posición de Buchanan; Acuerdo del Gabinete; Voluntarios de la Guerra de Mexico; Contrarevolución; Perfiles de un plan; Ratificación; Instrucciones a Saunders; Tres Cubanos; un Emisario de Isabel II, Ambiente español; Repulso de Madrid; En el Senado; Proceso de Bush; Exoneración de Campbell; Liquidación; Enseñanza. Various documents are published in appendices. The study is well footnoted.

From Bolivia comes a number of books, pamphlets, and other materials relative to the war of the Chaco. Among these are:

Aguirre Achá, José: La antigua Provincia de Chiquitos, Limitrofe de la Provincia del Paraguay (La Paz, Editorial "Renacimiento".—Flores, San Román y Cia., [1933], pp. 166). This excellently printed volume discusses: Fundaciones Jesuíticas; Gobernación militar; Situación de San Ignacio de Zamucos; and Límites de la Provincia de Chiquitos.

Ministerio de Relaciones Exteriores de Bolivia: Circular a las Legaciones de Bolivia sobre Yacimientos petrolíferos (La Paz, 1934, pp. 7, with map of the oil-bearing regions of Bolivia). The circular defines and locates the three oil-bearing regions asserted to belong to Bolivia, and the concessions given by Bolivia are noted.

Antokoletz, Daniel: La Cuestión del Chaco Boreal pendiente entre Bolivia y Paraguay (Montevideo, "Impresa Uruguaya", S. A., 1934, pp. 31). This is an address given in February, 1930, at the University of La Paz, and discusses Bolivian and Paraguayan claims. On the matter of arbitration, the learned author says: "This matter must be withdrawn from America, and especially, from North America. The juridical system of the United States is distinct from that of the other republics of this continent. Its mentality also is different. . . . It is advisable to withdraw this question from America and lay it before an European tribunal. I am of the opinion that the most impartial tribunal just now is the Permanent Court of International Justice. . . . The court is competent, for the Chaco Boreal is a juridical question".

- República de Bolivia. Ministerio de Relaciones Exteriores y Culto: Memoria presentada al Congreso de 1934. Conflicto del Chaco (La Paz, 1934, Editorial "Renacimiento", pp. 792). In this are discussed: Suspensión de las Relaciones diplomáticas; Negociaciones para un Pacto de no Agresión; Paraguay inicia la Guerra; Las Mediaciones; Paraguay declara el Estado de Guerra; La Sociedad de las Naciones; Nuevas Mediaciones Americanas.
- Díez de Medina, E.: Prisioneros de Guerra (La Paz, Imp. Arno Hnos, Comercio, Nos. 127-133, 1935, pp. 27). This contains various materials relative to the prisoners in Paraguay.
- Mercado Moreira, Miguel: Títulos de Bolivia sobre el Chaco Boreal (La Paz, 1935, pp. 55). This "brief exposition" was given in La Paz, before the Commission of Inquiry of the League of Nations. The Question of the Chaco from early times is discussed.

The Dirección General de Propaganda of La Paz is sending out by airmail brief typewritten materials, both in order to prove Bolivia's contention relative to the War of the Chaco and to attract attention to the resources and attractions of Bolivia.

By virtue of a resolution of the ministry of foreign relations at Caracas, June 23, 1933, the unedited narrative of Pedro Briceño Méndez, written at the request of General Banile Florencio O'Leary, was published for the first time, this being done in honor of the one hundred and fiftieth anniversary of the birth of Bolívar. The narrative bears title *Relación histórica del General Pedro Briceño Méndez* (Caracas, Tipografía Americana, 1933, pp. 62). The original manuscript of the manuscript was acquired by the ministry of foreign relations from the heirs of General O'Leary, as well as the copy made by the general for his own use—a useful precaution, for one leaf was missing from the original. Briceño Méndez's explanation of Bolívar's attitude at the arrest of Miranda is of interest, in that it holds the latter blameless. The *Relación*, which is written in a straight-forward, unaffected style, covers the period 1811 to 1821.

A small, pleasing volume by Professor John C. Parish of the University of California at Los Angeles, is a survey of the books and manuscripts relating to California in the Huntington Library. It is entitled *California Books and Manuscripts in the Huntington Library* (reprinted for private circulation from the *Huntington Library Bulletin*, Number 7, April, 1935, pp. 58, printed at the Harvard University Press). It "is not intended to serve as a bibliographical guide,

but to make known the general resources of the library for the benefit of scholars and others interested in the history of California". The survey includes printed works (pp. 3-20) and manuscripts (pp. 20-58), the latter being divided into the Spanish and Mexican, and the American periods. This is a careful publication and should be consulted by students working in the history of California. The term "California" is general and includes Lower California and the pamphlet notes materials relating to Sonora and the north Mexican states as approaches to California.

Andrés Molina Enríquez has published in popular form a small volume entitled *Esbozo de la Historia de los primeros diez Años de la Revolución agraria de Mexico (de 1910 a 1920) hechos a grandes Rasgos* (Mexico, Imprenta del Museo Nacional de Arqueología, Historia e Etnografía, 1933, pp. 197). This is a third volume by Molina Enríquez, and treats of "Aspectos Mestizos de la Historia de Mexico". The six chapters are entitled: Las Fatalidades económicas creadas en Mexico por la Dominación colonial; La Acción de los Mestizos, a Raiz del Establecimiento de la República; El Proceso de Iniciación de las Reformas mestizas; Las Reformas agrarias desde la independencia hasta el Principio de la Reforma; La Estabilización del Gobierno nacional de los Mestizos y de los Indios; and La Construcción de la Dictadura Porfiriana.

Under the auspices or with the collaboration of the Instituto Panamericano de Geografía e Historia have been published among other works, the following:

- Geografía física con aplicaciones a la República Mexicana. Mexico, Talleres de Fotozincografía del Departamento Geográfico, 1934. Pp. 146, IV. Pub. No. 7.
- Catálogo de Datos numéricos, geográficos, y topográficos de la República Mexicana. Tacubaya, 1933. Pp. X. 167, charts. Pub. No. 8.
- Asamblea inaugural verificado en Río de Janeiro en Diciembre de 1932. Mexico, Imprenta Nacional, 1933. Pp. 245. Pub. No. 9.
- Apuntes sobre Cartografía. Tacubaya, Talleres de Zincografía del Departamento Geográfico, 1935. Pp. 150, plates. Pub. No. 10.
- Importancia geográfica del "Eje Volcánico" Cordillera que atraviesa la República Mexicana del E. al W. sensiblemente sobre el paralelo 19°. Tacubaya, 1935. Pp. 15. Pub. No. 11.
- Evolución de la Geografía. Tacubaya, 1935. Pp. 24. Pub. No. 12.
- Los Signos convencionales en las Cartas geográficas. Mexico. pp. 12, 16 plates. Pub. No. 13.

- Apuntes sobre la antigua Mexico-Tenochtitlan. Tacubaya, 1935. Pp. 110. Pub. No. 14.
- La Genesis de los Signos de las Letras. Tacubaya, 1935. Pp. 53. Pub. No. 15.
- Importancia de las Cartas geográficas. Tacubaya, 1935. Pp. 51, charts. Pub. No. 16.
- Tercer Informe del Director del Instituto Panamericano de Geografía e Historia rendido ante los Delegados al 2º Congreso de dicho Instituto, en la Ciudad de Washington, del 14 al 19 de Octubre de 1935. Mexico, Imprenta "Gamma", 1935. Pp. 13. Pub. No. 17.
- Enseñanzas fundamentales de la Geografía humana. Mexico, 1934. Pp. 58. Pub. No. 22.

Nos. 7, 8, 11, 17, and 22, are by Sr. Ing. Pedro Sánchez, Director of the Instituto; No. 10 is by the same and Sr. Ing. Octavio Bustamante, the secretary of the Instituto; No. 12 is by the latter and Sr. Luciano López Sorcini; No. 14, by Sr. José López-Portillo y Weber; No. 16, by Sr. Ing. Octavio Bustamante.

Announcement is made of the publication by Antigua Librería de Robredo de José Porrúa e Hijos of a new edition by Vito Alessio Robles of Fray Agustín de Morfi's *Viaje de Indios y Diario de Nueva Mexico*, which was written in 1777 and 1778 but not published until 1856. The price of the new edition is ten pesos Mexican currency.

Nos. 3 and 4 in the "Cuadernos de Cultura" published by the Secretaría de Educación, Dirección de Cultura, at Havana (1935), are *Educación* by José Martí; and *Filosofía y Pedagogía*, by José de la Luz Caballero. The first has an introduction by Felix Ligaso, and the second one by Francisco G. del Valle. Nos. 1 and 2 of this series are respectively, *La Lengua de Martí*, by Gabriela Mistral, and *Educación y Patriotismo*, by Félix Varela.

The John Carter Brown Library has purchased from an English dealer a group of printed documents which relate to the status and treatment of the natives of Peru under Spanish rule. Certain viceregal ordinances of 1603 are recorded by Medina (Nos. 17-28, in his *La Imprenta en Lima*) of which the library has Nos. 18, 19, 23-26, as well as two viceregal decrees not listed by Medina. The library also has the earliest product of the press in Peru—an imprint of 1584, which is unique. Of thirty-two known Peruvian imprints of the first twenty years of printing in Peru, the library now has seventeen.

Emily Edwards is the author of *Modern Mexican Frescoes* (Mexico, Central News Co. Avenida Juárez, 4, 1934, pp. 41). This is "A guide to all Mexican Frescoes", and has a special map to frescoes in the center of Mexico City. The author, in a short foreword, notes that the movement in public wall painting has had its great development since 1921. "It grew out of the awakened revolutionary social-consciousness of the Mexican people". About twenty-five artists of exceptional ability have been commissioned at various times by the Mexican Government to decorate the walls of public buildings. The subjects chosen by these artists have generally, although not always, been those relating to old Mexican history or those growing out of the modern environment. The frescoes are briefly but lucidly described. Twelve frescoes in the center of Mexico City are described—locations of all of which are shown on the map; a number in the federal district, not shown on the map; those in other parts of Mexico; and those painted in the United States by Mexican artists. This last includes mentions of the frescoes in Radio City painted by Diego Rivera, which were not finished and were later destroyed. Besides Rivera, other artists employed on the various frescoes, included Fernando Leál, José Clemente Orozco, Roberto Montenegro, Jean Charlot, Ramón Alva Guaderrama, Rufino Tamayo, Alfredo Zalce, Paul O'Higgins, Miguel Tzab, Angel Bracho, Antonio Pujol, Marion and Grace Greenwood, Juan O'Gorman, Máximo Pacheco, Julio Castellanos, Jesús Guerrero Galván, Roberto Reyes Pérez, Juan Manuel Anaya, Amado de la Cueva, Ryah Ludins, and David Alfaro Siqueiros.

No. 19 of the "Congress and Conference" series of the Pan American Union is "Second General Assembly of the Pan American Institute of Geography and History, Washington, October 14-19, 1935"—a mimeographed publication of 16 pp. This gives, among other things, a list of the papers submitted to the conference (35 in all), excerpts of the addresses of Secretary of State Cordell Hull, the Ambassador of Peru, and Assistant Secretary of State, Sumner Welles, the report of the Committee on the Organization of the Institute, and the various resolutions approved by the Assembly.

The Pan American Union, on October 14, 1935, published in mimeographed form as its "Bibliographic Series", No. 13, a compilation entitled "Books and Magazine Articles on Geography in the

Columbus Memorial Library of the Pan American Union" (pp. 72). The compilation, which was made under direction of Mr. Charles E. Babcock, librarian of the above mentioned library, was published especially for the Second Assembly of the Pan American Institute of Geography and History. "The entries have been arranged under the country to which the text relates. Books and magazine articles relating to more than two or three countries have been grouped after the countries under the heading 'General' ". The compilation has an index of authors.

Sent out with the above compilation—a worthy beginning of the listing of geographical titles—is a circular signed by L. S. Rowe, director general of the Pan American Union, announcing that, in accordance with the resolution on American Bibliography adopted by the Seventh International Conference of American States at Montevideo that coördination and coöperation in the constructive work of Inter-American bibliography be undertaken in the library of the Pan American Union, the establishment of a "center for recording Inter-American Bibliographic effort will be immediately established in the Library of the Pan American Union". The record will be available to all persons interested. Undoubtedly, this center will be productive of much good. Together with the Center of Inter-American Studies of the George Washington University, it should go far toward making Washington the great center for effort relating to the Americas.

The American Association of University Women at Washington published in September, 1934, in mimeographed form, a 21-page pamphlet, entitled "The other America". This is "a syllabus on Latin America, with texts, supplementary readings, and recent periodical references, for the use of study-groups of the American Association of University Women". It was compiled by Glen Levin Swiggett, A. Curtis Wilgus, and J. Fred Rippy. There are twenty lessons or topics, for which readings are given, the whole giving a very excellent survey of Hispanic America within the limits of its purpose.

Dr. Francis Borgia Steck's paper "The first half-century of Spanish Dominion in Mexico, 1522-1572" read at the annual meeting of the Catholic Historical Society in 1934, has been issued in mimeographed form.

No. 7 of the series "Ibero-Americana", now being published at the University of California Press at Berkeley, namely, *Studies in the Administration of the Indians in New Spain*, by Lesley Byrd Simpson (1934, pp. 130, plates, maps, \$1.50), consists of two sections. The first is "The laws of Burgos of 1512"; and the second, "The Civil Congregation". The first is reproduced in full, transcribed from the original, with the abbreviations expanded, and with facsimiles of the original. The laws were first discovered by Dr. Roland D. Hussey and were published in this REVIEW in August, 1932 (XII, 306-321). Part II contains an introduction; visita and demarcation of the village of Huichapan; Congregation of Tornacustla and Tlileuantla; visita of the village of Iamatlan and its subjects; description and visita of the villages of Tingambato, San Juan, Corundapan, and San Angel; investigations by Rodrigo de Zarate y Villegas; visita and demarcation of the villages of Malila, Lolotla, and Ixtlavaco; congregation of the province of Tlanchinol by Pedro de Cervantes, 1604-1605. This is an excellent little volume.

The *Boletín de la Academia de la Historia* of Madrid, in its Tomo CV—Cuadernos I and II (July-December, 1934)—has an interesting article by José de Rújula y Ochotorena and Antonio del Solar y Taboada, entitled "Los Alvarado en el Nuevo Mundo". This is continued in subsequent numbers. There is also an article on "Criptografía española" by Mariano Alcocer; and another entitled "Una Fuente olvidada de la historia Ibero-Americana", by Herman Trimborn, which relates to descriptions of various provinces in South America. The original manuscript was written by Cosme Bueno, professor of mathematics and cosmographer in chief of Spain.

Frederick C. Chabot, who has written so voluminously on Texas history during the last few years, published through the Naylor Company, of San Antonio, in 1931, a volume entitled *Alamo, Altar of Texas Liberty* (pp. 141, illus., maps). In writing this volume, he has made use of manuscripts existing either in original or in transcript form in the Library of the University of Texas and in the archives of the Bejar County and San Fernando Cathedral, besides the standard books that cover the period, and other sources. The volume contains considerable information. A description of the Alamo as it appears at present is included. In 1935, the same author, published through the Leake Co., of San Antonio, a small volume entitled *The Alamo*,

Mission, Fortress, and Shrine (pp. 53); and through the Naylor Co., *Mission La Purissima Concepción*, this being an account of the mission in East Texas, its removal to San Antonio, and its present location near San Antonio. This is the best preserved of the Texas missions. Mr. Chabot has popularized Texas history in an admirable fashion, and his product will doubtless be more interesting to Texans than to others.

William F. Stirling is the author of a small work entitled *The Pronunciation of Spanish* (Cambridge, at the University Press; New York, The Macmillan Company, 1935). This is a scientific study of the phonetics of the Castilian Spanish language. The aim of the volume is to teach students to speak correctly and without a foreign accent. It is carefully worked out with diagrams.

An echo of the visit to Venezuela made recently by Dr. Leo S. Rowe, director general of the Pan American Union, is a pamphlet of forty-four pages entitled *La Visita del Doctor Leo S. Rowe a Venezuela* (Caracas, 1935). This was published under the auspices of the Sección Venezolana de la Sociedad Pan Americana. The pamphlet contains all the speeches and other formalities attending the visit.

Sister Mary Helen Patricia Corcoran, of the Congregation of the Sisters, Servants of the Immaculate Heart of Mary, Immaculata College, Immaculata, Pennsylvania, submitted in partial fulfilment for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in the Catholic University of America, a dissertation entitled *La Christiada* of the Dominican Fray Diego de Hojeda. This was published in Seville in 1611, and various manuscripts of the poem also exist. With photostat copies of all these before her, the author endeavors, with a success that will hardly be questioned, to reproduce the original as Fray Diego wrote it. It is a good critical study.

Catalogue No. 612, issued by Maggs Brothers of London, entitled *Spanish America and the Guianas* is a selection of eight hundred titles. It is useful for bibliography.

Pages 4-17 of "Katalog 638" issued by Karl Hiersemann, Leipzig, relate to the Americas, both North and South, and pp. 78-81 to Spain and Portugal.

Viau y Zona (Florida, 530, Buenos Aires) in their *Catálogo*, No. 1, consisting of titles of history and voyages in America, present 189 titles in all. There are several facsimiles.

Henry Stevens, Son and Stiles in their catalogue *Rare Americana: A Catalogue of historical and geographical Books, Pamphlets and Prints relating to America*, notwithstanding that the materials cited are mostly for Anglo America, give a number of titles for Hispanic America. The catalogue is "Rare Americana", No. 8.

La Revista de la Universidad Católica del Perú for June, 1934 (Tomo II, Año III, No. 9) has the following: "José Rafael de la Puente", by Cristóbal de Losada y Puga; "Keyserling y la América", by Tristán de Athayde; "Las Leyes del Matrimonio civil y Divorcio", by Rubén Vargas Ugarte, S. J.; "Las Obligaciones naturales en el Derecho moderno", by Raúl Ferrero Ribagliati; "Una Comedia inédita de Lunarejo", by Juan de Rimac. A section of the review is devoted to bibliography.

The *Revista Chilena de Historia y Geografía* (published by the Sociedad Chilena de Historia y Geografía y el Archivo Nacional, under the directorship of Ricardo Donoso) has the following materials in its issue for May-August, 1934 (Vol. LXXV., No. 82): Discurso de Bienvenida al Coronel P. E. Etherton", by Agustín Edwards; "Volando sobre el Monte Everest", by P. E. Etherton; "Los primeros Años de la Colonización del Estrecho de Magallanes: sus Lecciones para el Futuro", by Ernesto Greve; "Blest Gana y su Novela *Durante la Reconquista*", by Raúl Silva Castro; "Las Dalcas de Chiloé y los Chilotes", by C. A. Finsterbusch; "Novelistas y Cuentistas Chilenos", by Domingo Amunátegui Solar; "Origen de las Familias del antiguo Obispo de Concepción", by Gustavo Opazo M.; "Vida y Costumbres de los Araucanos en la segunda Mitad del Siglo XIX", by P. E. de Moesbach; "Actas del Cabildo de Santiago"; and various bibliographical notes, etc.—R. H. V.

La Revista Americana (Buenos Aires) for July, 1935, is given over mostly to the poems of its director V. Lillio Catalán, which are striking and delicate. It contains also a comment on "Leviatan, la gran Revista Española de Luis Araquistáin" and an article by Araquistáin taken from the *Leviatan* for May, 1934, entitled "La nueva Etapa del Socialismo". The August issue has "Lázaro Cárdenas, Síntesis Biográfica", by B. O. I. and "El Hombre y la Técnica", by Hector Velarde.

La Literatura Argentina of Buenos Aires, for December, 1934 (Año VII, Núm. 76) has an article by Enrique de Gandía entitled "Cómo se ha escrito una Historia eclesiástica del Río de la Plata". The same issue also publishes a list of recent books published in Argentina.

The Catholic Historical Review, in a recent issue, prints an article by Dr. Mary Watters, entitled "Bolívar and the Church". This was presented as a paper by Dr. Watters at the session of Hispanic American History at the American Historical Association meeting on December 28, 1934.

Commander L. McCormick-Goodhart, R. N. V. R., retired, of the British Embassy, Washington, read a paper entitled "Admiral Vernon, his Marylanders and his Medals", before the Maryland Historical Society, on April 8, 1935. This has been published in a recent issue of the *Maryland Historical Magazine*.

Revista Bimestre Cubana, in its issue for May-June, 1935, has the following pertinent articles: "Los últimos versos mulatos", by Fernando Ortiz; "La Naturaleza de las cosas: Ensayo para un estudio de Geografía política", by J. Conangla Fontanilles; "Francisco Agüero y Estrada (El Solitario)", (concluded), by Emilia Bernal; "Sermón fúnebre en elogio del Exmo. Sr. D. Luis de las Casas", by José Agustín Caballero y Rodríguez; "José Antono Saco: Estudio biográfico" (to be continued), by Pánfilo Camacho.

The Florida Historical Quarterly for July has an interesting and timely article on Ponce de Leon by T. Frederick Davis, of Jacksonville, who has heretofore given considerable attention to Florida historical matters. Among his former historical monographs, it will be remembered, is one on Gregor McGregor and his machinations in Florida. In the present article, which takes up a whole number of the above mentioned review, Mr. Davis sets Ponce de Leon and his discovery of Florida in a clear light. He reproduces some of the basic documents, such as the first capitulation made with Ponce de Leon by the Spanish monarch. Of special interest is Mr. Davis's lucid treatment of the discoverer's route on his first expedition in 1513. The article is a contribution to a controversial topic which has been at times rather a matter of prejudice than clear historical thinking. Historians of

early Spanish North America must go to this article for the best exposition that has yet been written.

In the October issue of the same review appears an article by Dr. Mark F. Boyd, on "The first American Road in Florida: Pensacola-St. Augustine Highway, 1824", in which considerable mention of the Spaniards occurs. Mrs. Marie Taylor Greenslade writes on "William Panton, 1745-1801"; and the same issue also has letters by William Panton to Governor Folch.

At the meeting of the Pan American Institute of Geography and History held in Washington, October 14-19, the George Washington University at a luncheon in honor of the delegates, presented a memento consisting of a small brochure with a picture for each of the American republics—a very tasty offering.

The *Homenajes a Eloy Alfaro* (Havana, Tipos Molina y Cía, Riela, 55-57, 1933, pp. 151) is a collection of the various commemorative acts of different Hispanic American countries, provinces, etc., and of Spain, relative to Sr. Eloy Alfaro, formerly president of Ecuador. Another volume of similar materials is in preparation.

Bernardino Mena Brito, in his *Maquinismo* (Mexico, Ediciones Botas, 1933, pp. 121) attempts to describe a new social order under which humanity will not only thrive better—but have more leisure, education, and intelligent coöperation.

Professor Sturgis E. Leavitt, of the University of North Carolina, plans the publication of a "Bibliography of Hispano-American Biography and Literary Criticism". He explains that this will be an extension of work already published in *Hispania*, THE HISPANIC AMERICAN HISTORICAL REVIEW, and other media; and will cover the entire field of Hispano-American literature, including collections of biographies, monographs, magazine articles, and histories of literature.

In the May, 1935, issue of *Hispania* Professor Leavitt published a bibliography of theses dealing with Hispano-American literature and proposed the establishment of a "Clearing House" for the yearly registration of theses either completed or in progress. The proposal met with approval and the December issue of *Hispania* contained a "statement" for the year 1935.

LIST OF GOVERNMENT PUBLICATIONS CONCERNING HISPANIC AMERICA

The items here listed have been taken from the January, February, and March 1935 *Monthly Catalogue, United States Public Documents (with Prices)*, issued by the Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C. All items have been listed as they appear in the catalogue, including the Library of Congress card number whenever given. It is hoped to continue this list every three months.

ARGENTINA

1. *Adult Education*. Las escuelas de adultos en la República Argentina; [por Fermín Estrella Gutiérrez]. [1934.] ii + 14 p. il. (Serie sobre educación no. 94, noviembre de 1934.) [Del Boletín de la Unión Panamericana, noviembre 1934.] Paper, 5 cents; subscription price for 12 issues of series, 50 cents. PA 1.13:s 94
2. *Buenos Aires, Argentina*. Approaches to Puerto de Buenos Aires, ríos Paraná and Uruguay, Río de la Plata, from Argentine surveys to 1930 [with insets]; chart 5287. Natural scale 1:100,000. Washington, Hydrographic Office, published February 1933, 2d edition, January 1935, corrected through Notice to mariners, 6, February 7, 1935. 38.2 x 28.2 in. 50 cents. N 6.18:5287

BRAZIL

3. *Brazil* [foreign trade of Brazil for 1933] latest reports from Brazilian official sources. [1934] [1] + 14 p. (Foreign trade series no. 131, 1934.) Paper, 5 cents. L.C. card 23-6435 PA 1.19:131

CHILE

4. *Social Service*. O serviço social no Chile; [por Léo Cordemans de Bray]. [1934.] ii + 10 p. il. (Série sobre saúde pública e previsão social no. 50, novembro de 1934.) [Do Boletim da União Panamericana, novembro 1934.] Paper, 5 cents; subscription price for 12 issues of series, 50 cents. PA 1.15:p 50

CUBA

5. *Cuba*. Republic of Cuba, with inset, Habana City and vicinity, drawn up by Antonio P. Pirola; map 3406-30. Scale 1:500,000. Provisional edition subject to correction. [Engineer Reproduction Plant, Army, Washington, D. C.] June 1934. 2 sheets, 34.2 x 50 in. and 34.2 x 42 in. \$2.00. W 100.6:C 89/2/sh.1,2

ECUADOR

6. *Galápagos Islands*. Anchorages in Galápagos Islands, Pacific Ocean; chart 1801. Washington, Hydrographic Office, published July 1899, 10th edition, January 1935, corrected through Notice to mariners 6, February 7, 1935. 25.1 x 43.7 in. 50 cents. N 6.18:1801

HAITI

7. *Haiti* [foreign trade of Haiti for 1933] latest reports from Haitian official sources. [1934.] [1] + 11 + [1] p. (Foreign trade series no. 130, 1934.) Paper, 5 cents. PA 1.19:130
L.C. card 22-26788

HONDURAS

8. *Bay Islands*. Archeological investigations in Bay Islands, Spanish Honduras [with list of literature cited]; by William Duncan Strong. Washington, Smithsonian Institution, February 12, 1935. vi + 176 p. il. 1 pl. 32 p. of pl. (Publication 3290; Smithsonian miscellaneous collections, v. 92, no. 14.) Paper, \$1.25. SI 1.7:92/14
L.C. card 35-26104

MEXICO

9. *Mexican Fruit Flies*. Studies on Mexican fruit fly. *Anastrepha ludens* (Loew) [with list of literature cited]; by Hugh H. Darby and E. M. Kapp. November 1934. 20 p. il. (Agriculture Dept. Technical bulletin 444.) Paper, 5 cents. A 1.36:444
L.C. card Agr. 34-915
10. *Mexico*. Trading under laws of Mexico; by Mariano H. Ramirez. 1935. x + 199 p. (Trade promotion series 152, revised December 1, 1934; Latin American Section, Commercial Laws Division.) [Includes list of supplementary publications of Foreign and Domestic Commerce Bureau relating to current Mexican legislation.] Paper, 15 cents. C 18.27:152/2
L.C. card 35-26184

NICARAGUA

11. *Nicaragua* [foreign trade of Nicaragua for 1933] latest reports from Nicaraguan official sources. [1935.] 10 p. (Foreign trade series no. 132, 1934.) Paper, 5 cents. PA 1.19:132
L.C. card 20-21429

PANAMA CANAL AND ZONE

12. *Report*. Annual report of governor of the Panama Canal, fiscal year 1934. 1934. viii + 154 p. Paper, 15 cents. W 79.1:934
L.C. card 15-26761
13. *Appropriations*. Estimates for the Panama Canal, 1936. [1935.] cover title, [1] + 656-670 p. 4° [Extract from Budget Bureau, Budget, 1936.] W 79.11/2: Es 8/936
14. *Cristobal, C. Z.* Port of Cristobal, Panama Canal. Atlantic Coast, surveys to 1905, surveys by the Panama Canal and other sources to 1933; chart 950. Scale 1:15,000. Washington, Coast and Geodetic Survey, December 1934. 34.8 x 28.3 in. 75 cents. C. 4.9:950

15. *Gorgas Memorial Institute of Tropical and Preventive Medicine*. Annual report of Gorgas Memorial Institute, 1934, letter transmitting annual report of Gorgas Memorial Institute of Tropical and Preventive Medicine, Inc., covering period November 1, 1933-October 31, 1934. January 3, calendar day January 4, 1935. 8 p. (H. doc. 78, 74th Cong. 1st sess.) Paper, 5 cents. L.C. card 31-26268
16. *Panama Canal and Its Ports*. Revised 1934. 1934. xii + 99 p. il. 3 pl. 14 p. of pl. 2 maps. (Port series 22.) Paper, 35 cents. L.C. card 34-28261 W 7.21:22/2
17. *Panama Canal*. Panama Canal tolls, hearing before subcommittee, 74th Congress, 1st session, on H. R. 1399, to provide for measurement of vessels using Panama Canal [for collection of tolls], January 24, 1935. 1935. iii + 56 p. Paper, 5 cents. Y 4.In 8/4:P 19/26
18. ——— Panama Canal tolls, report to accompany H. R. 5292 [to provide for measurement of vessels using Panama Canal, for collection of tolls]; submitted by Mr. Lea of California. February 8, 1935. 10 p. (H. rp. 91, 74th Cong. 1st sess.) [Corrected print.] Paper, 5 cents. L.C. card 35-26131
19. *Panama Canal Record*, v. 28, no. 6; January 15, 1935. Balboa Heights, C. Z. [1935]. p. 89-104. [Monthly.] L.C. card 7-35328 W 79.5:28/6
20. ———, v. 28, no. 7; February 15, 1935. Balboa Heights, C. Z. [1935]. p. 105-120. [Monthly.] L.C. card 7-35328 W 79.5:28/7
21. ———, v. 28, no. 8; March 15, 1935. Balboa Heights, C. Z. [1935.] pp. 121-136. [Monthly.] L.C. card 7-35328 W 79.5:28/8
22. *Telephone Directory*. The Panama Canal, telephone directory, January 1, 1935. Panama Canal Press, Mount Hope, C. Z., 1935. Cover title, 236 p. il. Paper, 40 cents. Chief of Office, The Panama Canal, Washington, D. C. W 79.2:T 23/5/935
23. *Tide*, moon, and sunrise tables, Balboa (Panama), Cristobal (Colon), [calendar year] 1935. Panama Canal Press, Mount Hope, C. Z., 1934. 31 p. 24° [For official use only. From Tide tables, 1935, issued by Coast and Geodetic Survey.] W 79.2:T 43/12

PUERTO RICO

24. *Puerto Rico*. Directing expenditure of \$15,000 for soil survey in Puerto Rico, order made by Secretary of Agriculture under agricultural adjustment act. December 12, 1934. 2 p. (Puerto Rico tax fund order 1.) L.C. card Agr 34-888 A 55.18/2:1
25. *Governor*. 34th annual report of governor of Puerto Rico, Blanton Winship, [fiscal year] 1934. [San Juan, P. R., Bureau of Supplies, Printing, and Transportation, 1934.] v + 131 p. il. 3 maps, 3 tab. L.C. card 6-35095 W 75.1:934

26. *Insular Possessions*: Guam, Philippines, Puerto Rico, Samoa, Virgin Islands, list of publications for sale by superintendent of documents. October 1934. [2] + 16 + [1] p. (Price list 32, 22d edition.)
L.C. card 26-26353 GP 3.9:32/22
27. *Post Route Maps*. Post route map of Puerto Rico. Scale 5 mi. = 1 in. 60 cents.
28. *Report of Puerto Rico Agricultural Experiment Station*, [fiscal year] 1934. January 1935. Cover title, 24 p. il. Paper, 5 cents.
L.C. card Agr 6-1362 A 10.12/1:934
29. *Sugar*. Allotment of quota for Puerto Rico, order made by Secretary of Agriculture under agricultural adjustment act. February 25, 1935. 7 p. (Puerto Rico sugar order 2.) A 55.18:2
30. *Sugarcane*. Puerto Rico administrative ruling no. 1: Puerto Rico sugarcane production adjustment contract, processing sugarcane into molasses. March 4, 1935. 1 p. (Sugar 302.) A 55.18/3:Su 3
31. *United States*, including Territories and insular possessions, showing extent of public surveys, national parks and monuments, Indian, military, bird and game reservations, national forests, railroads, canals, and other details [with insets]. Scale 37 m. = 1 in. Engraved by R. F. Bartle & Co., Washington, D. C., printed by Geological Survey, 1934. 59.5 x 82.5 in. \$2.00.
I 21.13: Un 3/30

CARIBBEAN AREA

32. *Livingston*, Guatemala-Honduras-Br. Honduras. Central America, compiled by Benjamin S. Ober, drawn by R. F. Daily; map no. 107D-16-N-I. Scale 1:250,000. Provisional edition. Engineer Reproduction Plant, Army, Washington, D. C., 1934. 18.8 x 35.3 in. \$1.00. W 100.6:L 76
33. *Pilot Charts*. Pilot chart of Central American waters, February 1935; chart 3500. Scale 1° long. = 0.7 in. Washington, Hydrographic Office, January 18, 1935. 23.3 x 35.1 in. [Monthly. Certain portions of the data are furnished by the Weather Bureau.] 10 cents. N 6.24:935/2
34. ———. Pilot chart of Central American waters, March 1935; chart 3500. Scale 1° long. = 0.7 in. Washington, Hydrographic Office, February 21, 1935. 23.3 x 35.1 in. [Monthly. Certain portions of the data are furnished by the Weather Bureau.] 10 cents. N 6.24:935/3
35. ———. Pilot chart of Central American waters, April 1935; chart 3500. Scale 1° long. = 0.7 in. Washington, Hydrographic Office, March 15, 1935. 23.3 x 35.1 in. [Monthly. Certain portions of the data are furnished by the Weather Bureau.] 10 cents. N 6.24:935/4
36. *San José (Guatemala)*, Guatemala-El Salvador, Central America, compiled by R. E. Kemp, drawn by B. Lawrason; map no. 107D-15-S-III. Scale 1:250,000. Provisional edition. Engineer Reproduction Plant, Army, Washington, D. C., 1934. 18.8 x 35.6 in. \$1.00. W 100.6:Sa 5 jo/2
37. *Trinidad Island*. Island of Trinidad and eastern part of Gulf of Paria, West Indies and northeast coast of South America, from British surveys between

1866 and 1925, and surveys by U. S. S. Hannibal in 1931 and 1932, topography from map by Government of Trinidad and Tobago in 1926; chart 5586. Natural scale 1:175,000 at lat. 10°20'. Washington, Hydrographic Office, January 1935, corrected through Notice to mariners 6, February 7, 1935. 32.1 x 44.3 in. 60 cents. N 6.18:5586

HISPANIC AMERICA AS A WHOLE

38. *Lights*. List of lights and fog signals: v. 1, Coasts of North and South America (excepting United States), West Indies, and Hawaiian Islands; corrected to January 1, 1935. 1935. 601 p. map. ([Publication] 30.) Paper, 90 cents.
L.C. card 7-24405 N 6.8:30/935
39. ———. 1935 supplement to List of lights, v. 5 [Hydrographic Office publication] 34, corrections and additions from Notices to mariners and other sources from date of publication (January 1, 1934) to January 1, 1935. 1935. [1] + 14 leaves. N 6.8:34/934-2
40. *Pilot Charts*. Pilot chart of north Pacific Ocean, April 1935; chart 1401. Scale 1° long. = 0.2 in. Washington, Hydrographic Office, February 20, 1935. 23.8 x 35.1 in. [Monthly. Certain portions of the data are furnished by the Weather Bureau.] 10 cents. N 6.16:935/4
41. *Strawberries*. Cultivo de la fresa en países calientes; [por J. C. Th. Uphof]. [1935.] ii + 14 p. il. (Serie sobre agricultura no. 101, diciembre de 1934.) [Del Boletín de la Unión Panamericana, diciembre 1934.] Paper, 5 cents; subscription price for 12 issues of series, 50 cents. PA 1.12:s 101

UNITED STATES RELATIONS WITH HISPANIC AMERICA

42. *American Delegations* to international conferences, congresses, and expositions, and American representation on international institutions and commissions, with relevant data, fiscal year 1934; compiled in Division of Protocol and Conferences. 1935. vi + 63 p. (Conference series 20; [Publication 690.]) Paper, 10 cents.
L.C. card 33-26097 S 5.30:20
43. ———. Fiscal year 1934, correction. [1935.] 1 p. (Conference series 20; Publication 690 [correction].)
L.C. card 33-26097 S 5.30:20/corr.
44. *Claims*. En bloc settlement of special claims, convention between United States and Mexico; signed Mexico City, April 24, 1934, proclaimed December 22, 1934. 1935. [1] + 6 p. (Treaty series 878.) [English and Spanish.] Paper, 5 cents.
L.C. card 35-26112 S 9.5/2:M 57/39
45. *Commerce*. Summary of United States trade with world, 1934; [by Ernest A. Tupper]. 1935. iv + 28 p. (Trade information bulletin 822; [Foreign Trade Statistics Division].)
L.C. card 35-26180 C 18.25:822

46. *Extradition*, convention between United States and other American republics; signed Montevideo, December 26, 1933, proclaimed January 25, 1935. 1935. [1] + 19 p. (Treaty series 882.) [English and Spanish.] Paper, 5 cents.
L.C. card 35-26207 S 9.5/2:Ex 8
47. *General Claims Commission, United States and Mexico*. Further extending duration of General Claims Commission provided for in convention of September 8, 1923, convention between United States and Mexico; signed Mexico City, June 18, 1932, proclaimed February 1, 1935. 1935. [1] + 4 p. (Treaty series 883.) [English and Spanish.] Paper, 5 cents.
L.C. card 35-26125 S 9.5/2:M 57/40
48. *Inter-American Relations*, address by Sumner Welles, assistant Secretary of State, under auspices of Center of Inter-American Studies, George Washington University, Washington, December 10, 1934. 1935. [2] + 15 p. narrow 8° (Latin American series 8; [Publication 680].) [Originally issued as mimeographed press release for publication December 11, 1934.] Paper, 5 cents.
L.C. card 35-26039 S 1.26:8
49. *International American Conference*. Report of delegates of United States to 7th International Conference of American States, Montevideo, Uruguay, December 3-26, 1933. 1934. xi + [1] + 346 p. (Conference series 19; [Publication 666].) [Conventions, additional protocol, and procès verbal in Spanish and English. Anti-war treaty in Spanish, Portuguese, and English.] Paper, 40 cents.
L.C. card 35-26038 S 5.30:19
50. ———. Rights and duties of states, convention between United States and other American republics [adopted by 7th International Conference of American States]; signed Montevideo, December 26, 1933, proclaimed January 18, 1935. [1] + 15 p. (Treaty series 881.) [English and Spanish.] Paper, 5 cents.
L.C. card 35-26213 S 9.5/2:St 2
51. *International Boundary Commission, United States and Mexico*, report to accompany H. J. Res. 58 [to provide for defraying expenses of American section, International Boundary Commission, United States and Mexico, in conducting investigation to determine feasibility of canalization of Rio Grande]; submitted by Mr. McReynolds, January 23, 1935. 5 p. (H. rp. 20, 74th Cong. 1st sess.) Paper, 5 cents.
L.C. card 35-26050
52. ———. National Boundary Commission, United States and Mexico, report to accompany S. J. Res. 16 [to provide for defraying expenses of American section, International Boundary Commission, United States and Mexico, in conducting investigation to determine feasibility of canalization of Rio Grande]; submitted by Mr. Cutting. February 4, 1935. 5 p. (S. rp. 41, 74th Cong. 1st sess.) Paper, 5 cents.
53. *Pan American Institute of Geography and History*. American Institute of Geography and History at Mexico City, report to accompany S. 411 [to

- authorize annual appropriation to pay pro rata share of United States of expenses of Pan American Institute of Geography and History at Mexico City]; submitted by Mr. Pittman. January 21, 1935. 2 p. (S. rp. 17, 74th Cong. 1st sess.) Paper, 5 cents.
54. ———. Report on Pan American Institute of Geography and History assembly in United States, 1935. February 20, 1935. 7 p. (H. doc. 107, 74th Cong. 1st sess.) Paper, 5 cents.
L.C. card 35-26129
55. ———. Report to accompany H. J. Res. 182 [to provide for membership of United States in Pan American Institute of Geography and History, and to authorize the President to extend invitation for next general assembly of institute to meet in United States in 1935, and to provide appropriation for expenses thereof]; submitted by Mr. Castellow. February 26, 1935. 6 p. (H. rp. 248, 74th Cong. 1st sess.) Paper, 5 cents.
L.C. card 35-26138
56. *Passenger Traffic*. Water borne passenger traffic of United States (includes traffic in vessels of all flags), calendar year 1933; [prepared in] Div. of Shipping Research. [December 18, 1934, published 1935.] [1] + 35 leaves, oblong large 8° (Report 157) [Annual. Figures subject to revision].
C 27.9/12:933/2
57. *Rio Grande*. International Boundary Commission, United States and Mexico. waters of Rio Grande, report to accompany H. R. 6453 [to amend act providing for study regarding equitable use of waters of Rio Grande, and so forth, as amended, so as to obtain information on which to base treaty with Mexico as to use of waters of Rio Grande, Colorado, and Tia Juana rivers]; submitted by Mr. Johnson of Texas. March 18, 1935. 5 p. (H. rp. 422, 74th Cong. 1st sess.) [H. R. 6453 authorizes designation of the American commissioner on the International Boundary Commission, United States and Mexico, to coöperate with representatives of Mexican Government in making investigation.] Paper, 5 cents.
L.C. card 35-26251
58. *Roosevelt Administration* and its dealing with republics of Western Hemisphere, address of Sumner Welles, assistant Secretary of State, read at annual convention of Association of American Colleges, Atlanta, January 17, 1935. 1935. [2] + 16 p. narrow 8° (Latin American series 9; [Publication 692].) [Originally issued as mimeographed press release for publication January 18, 1935.] Paper, 5 cents.
L.C. card 35-26114
S 1.26:9
59. *Special Mexican Claims Commission*, report to accompany S. 1068 [to establish commission for settlement of special claims comprehended within terms of convention between United States of America and United Mexican States concluded April 24, 1934, to be known as Special Mexican Claims Commission]; submitted by Mr. Pittman. January 21, calendar day January 25, 1935. 5 p. (S. rp. 26, 74th Cong. 1st sess.) Paper, 5 cents.
L.C. card 35-26059

60. ———, report to accompany S. 1068 [To establish commission for settlement of special claims comprehended within terms of convention between United States of America and United Mexican States concluded April 24, 1934, to be known as Special Mexican Claims Commission]; submitted by Mr. McReynolds. February 12, 1935. 5 p. (H. rp. 122, 74th Cong. 1 st sess.) Paper, 5 cents.
61. *Steamboats*. Schedule of steamers carrying mails from the United States and United States mails from Habana, Cuba, to foreign countries, also to Territory of Hawaii and to possessions of United States, schedule of air mail routes from United States to and in foreign countries, March 1935. [February 20, 1935.] 12 p. f° [Monthly.] Paper, 5 cents single copy, 50 cents a year; foreign subscription, 75 cents.
L.C. card 25-26231 P 8.5:935/3

MISCELLANEOUS AND UNCLASSIFIED

62. *Amazon Petroleum Corporation*. Nos. 260 and 135, in Supreme Court, October term, 1934, *Amazon Petroleum Corporation et al. v. Archie D. Ryan, S. D. Bennett, and Phil E. Baer; Panama Refining Company et al. v. A. D. Ryan, S. D. Bennett, and J. Howard Marshall*, on writs of certiorari to circuit court of appeals for 5th circuit; supplemental memorandum for respondent. [1934]. Cover title, 18 p. J 1.13: Am 15/4
63. *Atypical Children*. Tendências recentes na educação dos anormais; [por Christine P. Ingram]. [1934.] ii + 14 p. il. (Série sobre educação no. 50, novembro de 1934.) [Do Boletim da União Panamericana, novembro 1934.] Paper, 5 cents; subscription price for 12 issues of series, 50 cents.
PA 1.13:p 50
64. *Bulletin* (English edition). Bulletin of Pan American Union, January 1935; [v. 69, no. 1]. [1934.] iv + 1-76 p. il. [Monthly. This number is entitled Fourth centenary of Lima.]
L.C. card 8-30967 PA 1.6:e 69/1
65. ——— (English edition). Bulletin of Pan American Union, February 1935; [v. 69, no. 2]. [1935.] iv + 77-151 p. il. [Monthly.]
L.C. card 8-30967 PA 1.6:e 69/2
66. ——— (English edition). Bulletin of Pan American Union, March 1935; [v. 69, no. 3]. [1935.] iv + 153-274 p. il. [Monthly. Number dedicated to Pan American Day, April 14, 1935.]
L.C. card 8-30967 PA 1.6:e 69/3
67. ——— (Portuguese edition). Boletim da União Panamericana, janeiro 1935; [v. 37, no. 1]. [1934.] iv + 1-60 p. il. [Monthly.]
L.C. card 11-27014 PA 1.6:p 37/1
68. ——— (Portuguese edition). Boletim da União Panamericana, fevereiro 1935; [v. 37, no. 2]. [1935.] iv + 61-120 p. il. [Monthly.]
L.C. card 11-27014 PA 1.6:p 37/2

69. ——— (Portuguese edition). Boletim da União Panamericana, março 1935; [v. 37, no. 3]. [1935.] iv + 121-235 p. il. [Monthly. This number is entitled Edição especial dedicada ao Dia Pan-Americano.]
L.C. card 11-27014 PA 1.6:p 37/3
70. ——— (Spanish edition). Boletín de la Unión Panamericana, enero 1935; [v. 37, no. 1]. [1934.] iv + 1-84 p. il. [Monthly. This number is entitled A Lima en su cuarto centenario.]
L.C. card 12-12555 PA 1.6:s 69/1
71. ——— (Spanish edition). Boletín de la Unión Panamericana, febrero 1935; [v. 69, no. 2]. [1935.] iv + 85-168 p. il. [Monthly.]
L.C. card 12-12555 PA 1.6:s 69/2
72. ——— (Spanish edition) Boletín de la Unión Panamericana, marzo 1935; [v. 69, no. 31]. [1935.] iv + 169-300 p. il. [Monthly. This number is entitled Edición especial dedicada al Día de las Américas, 14 de abril.]
L.C. card 12-12555 PA 1.6:s 69/3
73. *Insects*. Alguns insetos que atacam as culturas cítricas; [por Rodolfo Arango]. [1934.] 20 p. il. (Série sobre agricultura no. 58, outubro de 1934.) [Do Boletim da União Panamericana, outubro 1934.] Paper, 5 cents; subscription price for 12 issues of series, 50 cents. PA 1.12:p 58
74. *Prisons*. La prisión del futuro; [por Sanford Bates]. [1934.] ii + 18 p. il. (Serie sobre salubridad pública y previsión social no. 79, noviembre de 1934.) [Del Boletín de la Unión Panamericana, noviembre 1934.] Paper, 5 cents; subscription price for 12 issues of series, 50 cents. PA 1.15:s. 79

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Here follows the list for April, May, and June, 1935.

ARGENTINA

1. *Adult education*. As escolas para adultos na Republica Argentina; [por Fermín Estrella Gutiérrez]. [1935.] ii + 14 p. il. (Serie sobre educação no. 51, abril de 1935.) [Do Boletim da União Panamericana, abril 1935.] Paper, 5c; subscription price for 12 issues of series, 50c. PA 1.13: p. 51

JULIEN

2. *Education*. Instituto de Educación del Distrito Federal de Río de Janeiro; [por Francisco Venancio Filho]. [1935.] ii + 18 p. il. (Serie sobre educación no. 97, abril de 1935.) [Del Boletín de la Unión Panamericana, abril 1935.] Paper, 5c; subscription price for 12 issues of series, 50c. PA 1.13: s 97

DOMINICAN REPUBLIC

3. *Dominican Republic* [foreign trade of Dominican Republic for 1933] latest reports from Dominican official sources. [1935.] [1] + 10 p. (Foreign trade series no. 136, 1935.) Paper, 5c. L.C. card 13-7275 PA 1.19: 136

4. *Report of 28th fiscal period, Dominican Customs Receivership under American-Dominican convention of 1924* [calendar year 1934], with Summary of commerce, [calendar] year 1934. 1935. [1] + 119 p. [Submitted to Bureau of Insular Affairs.]
L.C. card 9-9600 W 6.13/1: 934

EL SALVADOR

5. *El Salvador* [foreign trade of El Salvador for 1933] latest reports from Salvadorean official sources. [1935.] 8 p. (Foreign trade series no. 134, 1935.) Paper, 5c.
L.C. card 13-6846 PA 1.19: 134

HAITI

6. *Haiti*, annual report of Fiscal Representative, for fiscal year October 1933-September 1934, submitted to Secretary of State for Finance and Commerce of Republic of Haiti, and Secretary of State of United States, S. de la Rue, fiscal representative, Rex A. Pixley, deputy fiscal representative, J. C. Craddock, insector general, Internal Revenue Inspections Service. Imprimerie de l'Etat, Port-au-Prince, Haiti [1935]. v + [1] + 188 p. il.
S 1.23: 934

HONDURAS

7. *Honduras* [foreign trade of Honduras for 1933] latest reports from Honduran official sources. [1935.] 8 p. (Foreign trade series no. 135, 1935.) Paper, 5c.
L.C. card 22-26934 PA 1.19: 135

MEXICO

8. *Acapulco, Mexico*-Salina Cruz, Mexico; aviation chart V-407. Scale 10 naut. m. = 1.5 in., 10 stat. m. = 1.3 in., natural scale 1: 500,000. Washington, Hydrographic Office, December 1929, correct through Notice to aviators 7, April 1, 1935. 48.6 × 10 in. [Provisional chart.] 40c.
N 6.27: V-407/corr.

PANAMA CANAL AND ZONE

9. *Panama Canal*. Canal Zone code, report to accompany H. R. 6719 [to amend Canal Zone code]; submitted by Mr. Bland. April 22, 1935. 8 p. (H. rp. 744, 74th Cong. 1st sess.) Paper, 5c.
10. ———. Executive order, authorizing governor of The Panama Canal to arrange for operation by Panama Railroad Company of Panama Canal piers. April 19, 1935. 1 p. 4° (No. 7021.) Paper, 5c. Pr 32.5: P 191/12
11. ———. Measurement of vessels using Panama Canal [for collection of tolls], report [and minority report] to accompany S. 2288. [2 pts.] (S. rp. 624, 2 pts., 74th Cong. 1st sess.)
L.C. card 35-26444
[pt. 1.] Report; submitted by Mr. Gore. May 13, calendar day May 15, 1935. 9 p. Paper, 5c.
pt. 2. Minority report; submitted by Mr. Barbour. May 13, calendar day May 20, 1935. 5 p. Paper, 5c.
12. ———. Measurement of vessels using Panama Canal, joint hearings before Committee on Interoceanic Canals and subcommittee on merchant marine

of Committee on Commerce, 74th Congress, 1st session, on S. 2288, to provide for measurement of vessels using Panama Canal [for collection of tolls], April 4, and 5, 1935. 1935. iii + 167 p. il. Paper, 15c.

Y 4.In 8/1: P 19/16

13. *Panama Canal record*, v. 28, no. 9; April 15, 1935. Balboa Heights, C. Z. [1935]. p. 137-152. [Monthly.]
L.C. card 7-35328 W 79.5: 28/9

NOTE.—The yearly subscription rate of the Panama Canal record, issued monthly, is 50c. domestic, and \$1.00 foreign, except in the case of Government departments and bureaus, Members of Congress, representatives of foreign Governments, steamship lines, chambers of commerce, boards of trade, and university and public libraries to whom the Record is distributed free. The word "domestic" refers to the United States, Canada, Canal Zone, Cuba, Guam, Hawaii, Manua, Mexico, the Philippines, Puerto Rico, Republic of Panama, Tutuila, and the Virgin Islands. Subscriptions will commence with the issue of the Record in the month in which the subscriptions are received, unless otherwise requested. Remittances should be made payable to Disbursing Clerk, The Panama Canal, but should be forwarded to the Chief of Office, The Panama Canal, Washington, D. C. The name and address to which the Record is to be sent should be plainly written. Postage stamps, foreign money, and defaced or smooth coins will not be accepted.

14. ———, v. 28, no. 10; May 15, 1935. Balboa Heights, C. Z. [1935]. p. 153-172. [Monthly.]
L.C. card 7-35328 W 79.5: 28/10
15. ———, v. 28, no. 11; June 15, 1935. Balboa Heights, C. Z. [1935]. p. 173-188. [Monthly.]
L.C. card 7-35328 W 79.5: 28/11

PUERTO RICO

16. *Puerto Rico*. Amend joint resolution for relief of Puerto Rico, report to accompany H. J. Res. 129 [to amend joint resolution for relief of Porto Rico, approved December 21, 1928, to permit adjudication with respect to liens of United States arising by virtue of loans under such joint resolution]; submitted by Mr. Kocalkowski. May 4, 1935. 6 p. (H. rp. 824, 74th Cong. 1st sess.) Paper, 5c.
17. ———. Certain bonds of municipal governments of Puerto Rico, report to accompany H. R. 7446 [to authorize issuance and sale to United States of certain bonds of municipal governments in Puerto Rico]; submitted by Mr. Kocalkowski. May 28, 1935. 2 p. (H. rp. 1032, 74th Cong. 1st sess.) Paper, 5c.
18. *Copepods*. Reports on collections obtained by 1st Johnson-Smithsonian Deep-Sea Expedition to Puerta Rican Deep: New parasitic copepods; by Charles Branch Wilson. Washington, Smithsonian Institution, April 8, 1935. [2] + 9 p. 3 p. of pl. (Publication 3298; Johnson Fund; Smithsonian miscellaneous collections, v. 91, no. 19.) Paper, 15c.
L.C. card 35-26248 SI 1.7: 91/19
19. *Puerto Rico*. Directing expenditure of \$42,000 for insular soil erosion survey, order made by Secretary of Agriculture under agricultural adjustment act. April 11, 1935. 2 p. (Puerto Rico tax fund order 3.) A 55.18/2: 3
20. ———. Directing expenditure of \$93,000 for study and investigation of insect pests in Puerto Rico, order made by Secretary of Agriculture under agricultural adjustment act. April 5, 1935. 2 p. (Puerto Rico tax fund order 2). A 55.18/2: 2

21. ———. Directing expenditure of \$113,000 for experimentation in propagation and breeding of tropical plants and studies of domestic animal parasites, order made by Secretary of Agriculture under agricultural adjustment act. April 24, 1935. 2 p. (Puerto Rico tax fund order 5.)
A 55.18/2: 5
22. ———. Directing expenditure of \$2,250,000 for payments under Puerto Rico sugarcane production adjustment contract, order made by Secretary of Agriculture under agricultural adjustment act. April 24, 1935. 2 p. (Puerto Rico tax fund order 4.)
A 55.18/2: 4
23. ———. Geological Survey in Puerto Rico, report to accompany H. J. Res. 27 [for extension of coöperative work of Geological Survey to Puerto Rico]; submitted by Mr. Kociałkowski. April 12, 1935. 2 p. (H. rp. 677, 74th Cong. 1st sess.) Paper, 5c.
24. *Gobies*. Reports on collections obtained by 1st Johnson-Smithsonian Deep-Sea Expedition to Puerto Rican Deep: *Bollmania litura*, new species of goby; by Isaac Ginsburg. Washington, Smithsonian Institution, April 10, 1935. [2] + 3 p. 1 pl. (Publication 3299; Johnson Fund; Smithsonian miscellaneous collections, v. 91, no. 20.) Paper, 5c.
L.C. card 35-26275
SI 1.7: 91/20
25. *Puerto Rican Hurricane Relief Commission*, report to accompany S. J. Res. 88 [to abolish Puerto Rican Hurricane Relief Commission and transfer its functions to Secretary of Interior]; submitted by Mr. Hayden. April 11, calendar day April 12, 1935. 2 p. (S. rp. 481, 74th Cong. 1 sess.) Paper, 5c.
26. ———, report to accompany S. J. Res. 88 [to abolish Puerto Rican Hurricane Relief Commission and transfer its functions to Secretary of Interior]; submitted by Mr. Kociałkowski. April 19, 1935. 2 p. (H. rp. 729, 74th Cong. 1st sess.) Paper, 5c.
27. *Puerto Rico*. Issuance and sale to United States of certain bonds of municipal governments in Puerto Rico, report to accompany S. 1227; submitted by Mr. Bone. April 15, calendar day April 18, 1935. 2 p. (S. rp. 527, 74th Cong. 1st sess.) Paper, 5c.
28. ———. Ratification of joint resolution of Puerto Rican Legislature imposing import duty on coffee imported into Puerto Rico, report to accompany H. J. Res. 290 [to amend act providing for ratification of joint resolution 59 of Legislature of Puerto Rico, approved by governor May 5, 1930, imposing import duty on coffee imported into Puerto Rico]; submitted by Mr. Kociałkowski. May 22, 1935. 3 p. (H. rp. 975, 74th Cong. 1 sess.) Paper, 5c.
29. ———. Relief of Puerto Rico, report to accompany H. J. Res. 257 [to amend joint resolution for relief of Porto Rico, approved December 21, 1928, as amended by 2d deficiency act, fiscal year 1929, so as to permit adjustments on loans made by Puerto Rican Hurricane Relief Commission]; submitted by Mr. Kociałkowski [Kociałkowski]. May 28, 1935. 3 p. (H. rp. 1034, 74th Cong. 1st sess.) Paper, 5c.

30. *Report*. 6th annual report of Puerto Rican Hurricane Relief Commission [October 1, 1933-September 30, 1934]. January 3, 1935. 10 p. (H. doc. 75, 74th Cong. 1st sess.) Paper, 5c.
L.C. card 29-27497
31. *Puerto Rico*. Report upon improvement of rivers and harbors in Puerto Rico district; E. D. Ardery in charge. 1935. [1]+1415-24+1015-18 p. [The imprint date on the cover is given as 1934. Extract OO from annual report]
32. *Sugar*. Allotment of quota for direct consumption sugar for Puerto Rico, order of chief of engineers, 1934.] W 7.1/1a: P 962/3
made by Secretary of Agriculture under agricultural adjustment act. April 2, 1935. 3 p. (Puerto Rico sugar order 3.) A 55.18: 3
33. *Puerto Rico*. Temporarily to exempt refunding bonds of Government of Puerto Rico [from limitation of public indebtedness under organic act], report to accompany H. R. 8209; submitted by Mr. Kocialkowski. May 28, 1935. 2 p. (H. rp. 1033, 74th Cong. 1st sess.) Paper, 5c.

CARIBBEAN AREA

34. *Central America*. Supplement to Hydrographic Office publication 130, Central America and Mexico pilot (east coast), corrections and additions from Notices to mariners and other sources from date of publication (August 13, 1927) to January 1, 1935. 1935. [1] + 20 leaves. N 6.8: 130/927-9
35. *Habana, Cuba-Isla Cozumel, Mexico*, aviation chart V-249. Scale 10 naut. m. = 1.4 in., 10 stat. m. = 1.2 in., natural scale 1:500,000. Washington, Hydrographic Office, published May 1928, 2d edition, March 1932, correct through Notice to aviators 7, April 1, 1935. 50 × 10 in. [Contains text and illustrations on reverse.] 40c. N 6.27: V-249/2/corr.
36. *Mexico*. Supplement to Hydrographic Office publication 84, Mexico and Central American pilot (west coast), corrections and additions from Notices to mariners and other sources from date of publication (February 18, 1928) to January 1, 1935. 1935. [1] + 27 leaves. N 6.8: 84/928-8

WEST INDIES

37. *Coast pilots*. Supplement to United States coast pilot, West Indies, Puerto Rico, and Virgin Islands, 3d (1929) edition. March 20, 1935. [1] + 9 leaves. (Serial 446/5.) C 4.6/2: P 83/3/supp.935
38. *West Indies*. Supplement to Hydrographic Office publication 128, West Indies pilot, v. 1, corrections and additions from Notices to mariners and other sources from date of publication (March 16, 1927) to January 1, 1935. 1935. [1] + 62 leaves. N 6.8: 128/927-9
39. ———. Supplement to Hydrographic Office publication 129, West Indies pilot, v. 2, corrections and additions from Notices to mariners and other sources from date of publication (February 9, 1929) to January 1, 1935. 1935. [1] + 26 leaves. N 6.8: 129/929-7

CENTRAL AMERICA

40. *Corinto, Nicaragua-Puntarenas*, Costa Rica; aviation chart V-403. Scale 10 naut. m. = 1.4 in., 10 stat. m. = 1.2 in., natural scale 1:500,000. Washington, Hydrographic Office, published December 1929, 2d edition, March 1932, correct through Notice to aviators 7, April 1, 1935. 438. \times 10 in. [Provisional chart.] 40c. N 6.27: V-403/2/corr.
41. *Ocotepeque, Honduras*. Ocotepeque, Guatemala-Honduras-El Salvador, Central America, compiled by J. L. Hughes, drawn by J. K. Fry; map 107D-16-N-IV. Scale 1:250,000. Provisional edition. Engineer Reproduction Plant, Army, Washington, D. C., 1935. 18.8 \times 35.5 in. \$1.00. W 100.6: Oc 5
42. *Pilot charts*. Pilot chart of Central American waters, May 1935; chart 3500. Scale 1° long. = 0.7 in. Washington, Hydrographic Office, April 16, 1935. 23.3 \times 35.1 in. [Monthly. Certain portions of the data are furnished by the Weather Bureau.] 10c. N 6.24: 935/5
NOTE.—Contains on reverse: Navigator's time, distance, speed diagrams and tables.
43. ———. Pilot chart of Central American waters, June 1935; chart 3500. Scale 1° long. = 0.7 in. Washington, Hydrographic Office, May 16, 1935. 23.3 \times 35.1 in. [Monthly. Certain portions of the data are furnished by the Weather Bureau.] 10c. N 6.24: 935/6
NOTE.—Contains on reverse: Cyclonic storms.
44. ———. Pilot chart of Central American waters, July 1935; chart 3500. Scale 1° long. = 0.7 in. Washington, Hydrographic Office, June 14, 1935. 23.3 \times 35.1 in. [Monthly. Certain portions of the data are furnished by the Weather Bureau.] 10c. N 6.24: 935/7
NOTE.—Contains on reverse: Cyclonic storms.
45. *Stann Creek, British Honduras*. Stann Creek, Guatemala-Br. Honduras, Central America, compiled by J. L. Hughes, drawn by J. K. Fry; map 107E-16-S-IV. Scale 1:250,000. Provisional edition. Engineer Reproduction Plant, Army, Washington, D. C., 1935. 18.8 \times 35.1 in. \$1.00. W 100.6: St. 2

SOUTH AMERICA

46. *South America*. Supplement to Hydrographic Office publication 173, South America pilot, v. 2, corrections and additions from Notices to mariners and other sources from date of publication (November 16, 1929) to January 1, 1935. 1935. [1] + 23 leaves. N 6.8: 173/929-6
47. ———. Supplement to Hydrographic Office publication 174, South American pilot, v. 3, corrections and additions from Notices to mariners and other sources from date of publication (September 15, 1928) to January 1, 1935. 1935. [1] + 34 leaves. N 6.8: 174/928-7
48. *Uruguay River*, Argentina and Uruguay, Concepcion del Uruguay to Concordia, from Argentine surveys between 1901 and 1915; with inset, Plan of Hervidero Pass; chart 2706. [Scale naut. m. = 1.4 in.] Washington, Hydrographic Office, published August 1913, 3d ed, March 1935, corrected through Notice to mariners 14, April 4, 1935. 39.2 \times 26 in. [Map is in 3 sections.] 50c. N 6.18: 2706

HISPANIC AMERICA

49. *Latin American foreign trade* in 1933, general survey. [1935.] ii + 22 p. (Foreign trade series no. 133, 1935.) [Imprint date incorrectly given on last page as 1934.] Paper, 5c.
L.C. card 24-27492 PA 1.19: 133
50. *Radio broadcasting*. La radiofusión [radiodifusión] educativa en Hispano América; [por Antonio Alonso]. [1935.] ii + 14 p. il. (Serie sobre educación no. 96, febrero de 1935.) [Del Boletín de la Unión Panamericana, febrero 1935.] Paper, 5c; subscription price for 12 issues of series, 50c.
PA 1.13: 596

UNITED STATES AND HISPANIC AMERICA

51. *Addresses and statements* by Cordell Hull, Secretary of State, in connection with his trip to South America, 1933-34, to attend the 7th International Conference of American States, Montevideo, Uruguay. 1935. ix + 103 p. ([Publication card 694.]) Cloth, \$1.00.
L.C. card 35-26276 S 1.2: So 8/3
52. *Mexico*. General claims, protocol between United States and Mexico, signed Mexico City, April 24, 1934, proclaimed February 1, 1935; and exchange of notes. [Revised print.] 1935. [2] + 13 p. (Executive agreement series 57; [Publication 709].) [English and Spanish, excepting note from Secretary of State (Hull) to Mexican Chargé d'Affaires ad interim at Washington (Campos Ortiz) which is in English only. Supersedes Publication 601.] Paper, 5c.
L.C. card 35-26277 S 9.8: 57/2
- NOTE.—The present number in the Executive agreement series may be filed in the Treaty series after Treaty series 882.
53. *Pan American coopération*, radio address by Sumner Welles, assistant Secretary of State, March 14, 1935. 1935. [2] + 7 p. narrow 8° (Latin American series 10; [Publication 712].) [Originally issued as mimeographed press release for publication March 14, 1935.] Paper, 5c.
L.C. card 35-26288 S 1.26: 10

54. *Pan American Institute of Geography and History*, report to accompany S. J. Res. 86 [authorizing annual appropriation to enable United States to become member of Pan American Institute of Geography and History, authorizing the President to invite Institute to hold its 2d general assembly in United States in 1935, and authorizing appropriation for expenses of such meeting]; submitted by Mr. Pittman, May 13, calendar day May 20, 1935. 6 p. (S. rp. 631, 74th Cong. 1st sess.) Paper, 5c.
55. ———. Membership of United States in Pan American Institute of Geography and History, report to accompany H. J. Res. 182 [to provide for membership of United States in Pan American Institute of Geography and History, and to authorize the President to extend invitation for next general assembly of Institute to meet in United States in 1935, and to provide appropriation for expenses thereof]; submitted by Mr. Pittman. May 13, calendar day May 31, 1935. 6 p. (S. rp. 758, 74th Cong. 1st sess.) Paper, 5c.
56. *Pan Americanism*. Two years of good neighbor policy, address by Sumner Welles, assistant Secretary of State, before American Academy of Political

and Social Science, Philadelphia, April 13, 1935. 1935. [2] + 18 p. narrow 8° (Latin American series 11; [Publication 729]) [Originally issued as mimeographed press release for publication April 13, 1935.] Paper, 5c.
L.C. card 35-26408 S 1.26: 11

57. *Rio Grande*. Equitable use of waters of Rio Grande, report to accompany H. R. 6453 [to amend act providing for study regarding equitable use of waters of Rio Grande, and so forth, as amended, so as to obtain information which may be used as basis for negotiation of treaty with Mexico as to use of waters of Rio Grande, Colorado, and Tia Juana rivers]; submitted by Mr. Pittman. May 13, calendar day May 20, 1935. 3 p. (S. rp. 633, 74th Cong. 1st sess.) [H. R. 6453, as reported by Senate committee, authorizes designation of the American commissioner on the International Boundary Commission, United States and Mexico, or other Federal agency to coöperate with representatives of the Mexican Government in making investigation.] Paper, 5c.
58. ———. Extension of terms and provisions of present Rio Grande compact, report to accompany H. R. 7873 [to give consent and approval of Congress to extension of terms and provisions of present Rio Grande compact signed at Santa Fe, N. Mex., February 12, 1929, by commissioners for Colorado, New Mexico, and Texas, heretofore approved by the act of Congress]; submitted by Mr. Adams. May 13, calendar day May 24, 1935. 1 p. (S. rp. 712, 74th Cong. 1st sess.) Paper, 5c.

MISCELLANEOUS AND UNCLASSIFIED

59. *Badianus manuscript*. Concerning the Badianus manuscript, an Aztec herbal, Codex Barberini, Latin 241 (Vatican Library); by Emily Walcott Emmart. Washington, Smithsonian Institution, May 18, 1935. [3] + 14 p. 4 p. of pl. and facsim. (Publication 3329; Smithsonian miscellaneous collections, v. 94, no. 2.) Paper, 40c.
L.C. card 35-26381 SI 1.7: 94/2
60. *Bulletin (English edition)*. Bulletin of Pan American Union, April 1935; [v. 69, no. 4]. [1935.] iv + 275-358 p. il. [Monthly.]
L.C. card 8-30967 RA 1.6: e 69/4
61. ———. Same. (H. doc. 51, pt. 4, 74th Cong. 1st sess.)
62. ———. Same. v. 68, January-December 1934 [title page and index]. 1935.
xx p. PA 1.6: e 68/t.p.& ind.
63. ———. Same. (H. doc. 155, pt. 13, 73d Cong. 2d sess.)
64. ———. (*Portuguese edition*). Boletim da União Panamericana, abril 1935; [v. 37, no. 4]. [1935.] iv + 237-304, p. il. [Monthly.]
L.C. card 11-27014 PA 1.6: p 37/4
65. ———. (*Spanish edition*). Boletín de la Unión Panamericana, abril 1935; [v. 69, no. 4]. [1935.] iv + 301-384 p. il. [Monthly.]
L.C. card 12-12555 PA 1.6: s 69/4
66. ———. (*English edition*). Bulletin of Pan American Union, May 1935; [v. 69, no. 5]. [1935.] iv + 359-434 p. il. [Monthly.]
L.C. card 8-30967 PA 1.6: e 69/5

67. ——— Same. (H. doc. 51, pt. 5, 74th Cong. 1st sess.)
68. ——— (*Portuguese edition*). Boletim da União Pan-Americana, maio 1935; [v. 37, no. 5]. [1935.] iv + 305-364 p. il. [Monthly.]
L.C. card 11-27014 PA 1.6: p 37/5
69. ——— (*Spanish edition*). Boletín de la Unión Panamericana, mayo 1935; [v. 69, no. 5]. [1935.] iv + 385-459 p. il. [Monthly.]
L.C. card 12-12555 PA 1.6: s 69/5
70. ——— (*English edition*). Bulletin of Pan American Union, June 1935; [v. 69, no. 6]. [1935.] iv + 435-510 p. il. [Monthly.]
L.C. card 8-30967 PA 1.6: e 69/6
71. ——— Same. (H. doc. 51, pt. 6, 74th Cong. 1st sess.)
72. ——— (*Portuguese edition*). Boletim da União Panamericana, junho 1935; [v. 37, no. 6]. [1935.] iv + 365-424 p. il. [Monthly.]
L.C. card 11-27014 PA 1.6: p 37/6
73. ——— (*Spanish edition*). Boletín de la Unión Panamericana, junio 1935; [v. 69, no. 6]. [1935.] iv + 461-536 p. il. [Monthly.]
L.C. card 12-12555 PA 1.6: s 69/6
74. *Explorations and field-work of Smithsonian Institution in 1934. Washington, Smithsonian Institution. 1935. [5] + 88 p. il. (Publication 3300.)*
L.C. card 13-35550 SI 1.2: Ex 7/934
CONTENTS.—Studies of the sun and stars; by O. G. Abbot.—Mineralogical investigation in Mexico; by W. F. Foshag.—Fossil hunting in southern Idaho; by O. Lewis Gasin.—Devonian studies in southwestern Ontario and Michigan; by A. S. Warthin and G. A. Cooper.—Hancock Galápagos Expedition, 1934; by Waldo L. Schmitt.—Explorations of David O. Graham in Szechwan, China; by Herbert Friedmann.—Zoological collecting in Siam; by Hugh M. Smith.—Butterflies of Virginia; by Austin H. Clark.—Collecting grasses in northeastern Brazil; by Jason R. Swallen.—Archaeological field-work in China; by O. W. Bishop.—Archaeological excavations on Kodiak Island, Alaska; by Ales Hrdlicka.—Salvaging early cultural remains in valley of lower Columbia River; by Herbert W. Krieger.—Archaeological work in Florida; by M. W. Stirling.—Folsom camp site and workshop; by Frank H. H. Roberts, jr.—Indian mounds on Shiloh Battlefield; by Frank H. H. Roberts, jr.—Archaeological explorations in country of Eastern Chumash; by William Duncan Strong.—Excavating ancient Yokuts shellmounds in California; by Winslow M. Walker.—Tracing De Soto's route; by John R. Swanton.—Field-work among Indians of California; by John P. Harrington.—Passamaquoddy Indians of Maine; by Truman Michelson.
75. *Publications. Catalog of U. S. Coast and Geodetic Survey nautical charts, coast pilots, tide tables, current tables, tidal current charts, airway maps. Atlantic and Gulf coasts, Puerto Rico, Virgin Islands, and Canal Zone, Pacific Coast, Alaska, Hawaiian Islands and Guam, and Philippine Islands. Edition, April 1935. [1935.] cover title, 58 p. il. 4° (Serial 577.)*
L.C. card 7-6923 C 4.5: 935
76. *Texas Centennial Exposition, report to accompany S. J. Res. 131 [providing for participation of United States in Texas Centennial Exposition and celebrations to be held in Texas during 1935 and 1936, and authorizing the President to invite foreign countries and nations to participate therein, and for other purposes]; submitted by Mr. Barkley. May 13, calendar day May 21, 1935. 1 p. (S. rp. 641, 74th Cong. 1st sess.) [S. J. Res. 131 establishes the United States Texas Centennial Commission.] Paper, 5c.*

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